

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 29, 1883.

The Week.

IN addition to his other troubles, President Arthur has now to appoint a new Postmaster-General. There are people, however, most willing to help him out of it. Perhaps there are too many of them. There is, for instance, Mr. Chauncey I. Filley, of Missouri. Several successive Presidents have been dying to make him Postmaster-General, but every time some trifle intervened, and then they appointed somebody else. That Mr. Filley is the best man for Postmaster-General is a fact, for he has said so himself. According to his own testimony, in his own handwriting, "he combines a superior order of business talent, practical information, and acquaintance with systematic methods, and fertile originations and quiet execution." He is also "unyielding in principle and unswerving in the execution of trusts, and has never sacrificed the public or political interests to self, but on the contrary, self for them." He is also "a great planner." As we know all this upon Mr. Filley's own authority, it is no wonder that Mr. Filley has it telegraphed from Washington to St. Louis that now, Mr. Howe's death having made a vacancy in the Postmaster-Generalship, he has a sure thing of it. But there is also Mr. Frank Hatton, Assistant Postmaster-General, and editor of the *Washington Republican*. Mr. Hatton, being an inveterate Stalwart, is rather severe upon the civil-service reformers as impracticable dreamers and very improper persons generally. But now he thinks it would be an unscrupulous violation of civil-service reform principles if, instead of promoting him to the first place in the Post-office Department, the President preferred some "outsider" to him. His promotion would indeed serve great-public ends, for there is no telling how much a judicious management of that department might help the circulation of Mr. Hatton's paper, the *Washington Republican*. And besides, nobody would show more skill than this same Mr. Hatton in circumventing the civil-service rules in order to put Stalwarts into place.

The present political situation has some very odd features—a period of party dissolution, or what is called "a transition period," always has; but no such period has ever had an odder feature than the tendency of reformers or revolutionists to select candidates of doubtful antecedents as their champions. It would probably puzzle the closest student of politics or human nature to say what craving of the reformers' nature General Butler satisfied in Massachusetts. We say the reformers' nature, because we are bound to suppose that those Republicans who voted for Butler really meant reform. They were not dissatisfied with the old Republican régime through pure "cussedness." They must have felt that there was something wrong with the government of the State which voting for Butler would help to cure. But why

should Butler seem to anybody to have anything remedial about him? For what virtue in politics or society does he stand? What abuse did he ever extirpate? What bad tendency in politics did he ever oppose? What is there in his life or character which anybody who was ever drawn into the Republican party by its principles would be likely to admire? There can be only one answer to each of these questions. There is no reform in or about him, and the reformers who voted for him must have done so as a huge joke. Here in this State dissatisfaction similar to that which prevailed in Massachusetts last fall showed itself in a very aggravated form, but it did not find vent in a piece of bouffe. We voted for an obscure man, it is true, but for a serious man, whose career in such public offices as he had filled indicated that he would be likely to fill higher ones with credit.

The Rhode Island meddlesomeness seem now to be in a fair way to follow the example of their Massachusetts brethren. The selection of Mr. Sprague as the head of a reform movement has somewhat the same humorous touch as the selection of Butler in Massachusetts. It would be impossible to say what process of amendment in human affairs Mr. Sprague represents. His association with the industry of the State has not been a fortunate or improving spectacle. If he has valuable ideas about politics, he has hitherto kept them to himself, and his career is hardly more inspiring than Butler's. So that his nomination and election also, if it takes place, will really have to be set down as a political debauch. It must be admitted that both spees are rather discouraging. It is not cheering to see the people of two New England States apparently bent on "having some fun" with their highest office by delivering it for even one year to "the boys." It is not possible, whatever people say, to have only one year of a man like Butler in the Governorship. The odor of Butlerism will hang round the office long after he leaves it. The mere fact that such a man can get such an office, long remains as a lesson or suggestion, with plenty of mischief concealed in it. American humor is an excellent article, and is having a great run of success at home and abroad, but it is sometimes out of place. The American mind is not quite prepared to use it with discretion—that is, to take what it wants of it and no more; or, in other words, has not learned how to cover a thing with ridicule without any loss of respect for it.

The past week has been remarkable for the fluctuations of the money market. The stringency which has been gradually increasing for some time culminated about the middle of last week. Rates for mercantile paper had advanced from 1 to 1½ per cent. in the previous fortnight, and the rates for call loans on stock collaterals on the Stock Exchange had gradually advanced to 14 and 15 per cent. per annum, even touching 25 per cent. one day last week. The tightness in the money mar-

ket had caused a large decrease in the mercantile demand for foreign exchange, and rates for exchange had declined below the gold importing point. The effect of this condition of things was to draw a considerable amount of gold to this country from London and Paris. From the 16th to the 24th there was received in New York about \$3,000,000 of gold, while about \$1,500,000 more is on the way. Last week it was also announced that the Treasury would begin the prepayment of the April interest on the public debt, amounting to \$7,000,000, and on Tuesday, the 27th, \$2,000,000 was paid out of the Sub-Treasury in this city on that account. The combined effect of the arrivals of foreign gold and the payments of the Treasury was to cause a decided change in the money market, and on Tuesday call loans on the Stock Exchange dropped to 6 and 7 per cent. The rates for discount of mercantile paper have only been slightly reduced as yet, but the prospect now is that with the payment of \$7,000,000 April interest and \$15,000,000 on May 1 for called bonds, and from \$30,000,000 to \$40,000,000 of pensions during the next three or four months, together with some further imports of foreign specie, the money markets of this country will be plenteous in May.

The comparative ease in the money market and the prospect of an increase of money have not affected the stock market, which continues extremely dull. The speculative spirit seems to be almost entirely absent, not only among the general public, but even among the usual operators of the Street. The general conditions are certainly in favor of higher prices. The present prices of stocks are acknowledged to be very low, the freight movement and passenger travel on the railroads were never better at this season of the year than they are now, and rates of freights and fares were never so high; and yet there seems to be no movement to buy stocks, but rather a disposition to wait until some forecast can be made as to the character of next year's crops. If the month of May should show a fair prospect for a good wheat crop, not only will there undoubtedly be an important advance in railway shares generally, but all mercantile and business enterprises will experience an unusual stimulus.

Dorsey was put on the stand in the Star-route trial on Monday, and contradicted Rerdell at many points. Some excitement was caused by Mr. Merrick's asking the witness how far he regarded an oath as binding upon his conscience. The question brought Mr. Ingersoll to his feet at once, and he delivered an impassioned address on superstition and the Dark Ages, in the course of which he declared that he, Mr. Ingersoll, regarded Truth as the most sacred of all obligations, but that if called to testify as a witness in court, he would be obliged to admit that he did not believe in a personal God. He also denounced the Inquisition, and recalled the cruelties practised by it with the rack and the thumbscrew, but said very

little about Dorsey. After hearing Mr. Merrick the Court decided that Dorsey was a competent witness, and could testify like any other witness, under the pains and penalties of perjury. Of course this does not preclude a cross-examination on the subject of his religious belief, nor as to Rerdell's story that Dorsey had expressed the opinion that where a friend's welfare was concerned perjury might become a duty.

A correspondent directs our attention to the following clause in the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States: "Neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States; . . . but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void." Our correspondent asks: "Is not this provision something of an obstacle to the law passed by the Tennessee Legislature to pension ex-Confederate soldiers? And is there no citizen of Tennessee who feels sufficient interest in the matter of the necessary tax to bring the validity of the law before the Federal Court? There being a Federal question involved, ought not a Federal court to decide whether the law was passed to fulfil an assumed but void obligation?" Our opinion of the moral character of such a proceeding on the part of a repudiating State we have already expressed; but we do not think the granting of pensions to ex-Confederate soldiers can be called an assumption or payment of a "debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion." A pension is a gratuity, and such a gratuity paid in 1883 can scarcely be called assuming or paying a debt incurred "in aid" of a rebellion which occurred twenty years ago. However, the significance of the fact, that while granting pensions to ex-Confederate soldiers the State of Tennessee cheats her creditors on the pretence of poverty, remains the same, whether the pension act be constitutional or not.

The temperance movement in the West receives a great part of its impetus, in one way and another, from women, who, down-trodden and oppressed though they be, frequently make short work of the "rum" vender. Last week Davis & Drumm opened, on H Street, in the orderly little town of Lompoc, Cal., what is called by some euphemists a "sample-room"; by others, a "saloon." But the opening was not of the kind they expected. From all points of the compass a great mass-meeting came flocking together, and joined in singing, prayer, speeches, and exhortations. In these proceedings the women were particularly prominent, "mothers pleading most pathetically" with the saloon keepers to "yield like good men and give up the business." The misguided Davis & Drumm, however, only replied with taunts and sneers, and, after vain attempts at a compromise, a rope was run round the saloon, and the crusaders of both sexes pulled the building from its foundations "endways," and, amid wild cheers, "tore it to flinders." Lompoc is said to be a "temperance colony," and this is not the first time in its history in which its hostility to rum has been shown. In eight years a drug store

has been emptied of liquor, a hotel has been shelled, and a saloon treated in the same way. The mass-meeting which disposed of Davis & Drumm, before adjourning, resolved that in future any one attempting to sell liquor in Lompoc should be tarred and feathered and ridden out of town on a rail.

It is said that 900,000 citizens have petitioned the President to pardon Sergeant Mason, who was court-martialed for trying to kill Guiteau when placed on duty to guard him from the mob. One of the grounds on which the petitioners rely is "the great and universal indignation then and now felt and expressed by the American people against the assassin of President Garfield." Now, Mason was placed on guard solely because it was feared by his commanding officer that this great and universal indignation would lead to violence. In firing on Guiteau, therefore, he not only attempted murder, but committed the very offence which he was there to prevent others committing. To pardon him on this ground would be to give a positive encouragement to mob-law and murder, and strike a terrible blow at discipline in the Army. That such a petition should find multitudes of signers is singular enough; that it should be addressed to the President, the constitutional head of the military service, makes the case still more grotesque. One incident in the effort to get Mason pardoned illustrates the true nature of many movements of this kind. Twelve thousand dollars were raised for his family, and now comes his lawyer and "files a bill in equity" asking to have Mrs. Mason compelled to pay his bill of \$3,500 for "services and disbursements" in trying to procure her husband's release, out of \$7,000 which she now has in bank. The bill in equity, if successful, will probably cost just \$3,500 more, so that Mrs. Mason would be exactly able to meet the cost of not getting her husband out of jail, and thus have the satisfaction of knowing that she had paid her lawyer in full.

The people of Uniontown (Pa.), who are so much excited about the acquittal of Dukes that they have warned him to leave the place within twenty-four hours, would gratify a very legitimate public curiosity if they would explain in some authoritative way how the jury which tried him came to be made up of such very ignorant men. For this state of things the expulsion of Dukes is a very incomplete remedy. If the jury represents the intelligence of the county, it is surprising that it has not produced many Dukeses before now. Dukes himself, in proposing to continue his practice at the bar and sit in the Legislature, gives some indications of mental obtuseness not far removed from that of the jury. The letters he wrote to Nutt about his daughter appeared to us those of a moral monster, but they did not strike the jury in that light. They apparently took the Dukes view of them, that they were not very nice, perhaps, but such as an angry man might fairly be expected to write to the father of a girl whom he had been courting and had jilted. So that it is very possible that Dukes is as much bewildered by the Uniontown feeling against him as

the jurymen are by the excitement over their verdict.

There is, of course, no way of improving the Uniontown jury panel all at once. Such as it appears in the Dukes trial, it is evidently the result of a low condition of popular education in some parts of Pennsylvania. This cannot be remedied as far as the present generation is concerned. The moral sense can perhaps best be cleared and sharpened by such outbursts of popular indignation as the verdict has called forth. This brings home to men in a rude, coarse, but effective way that it is a serious thing to let a murderer go on the plea of self-defence, especially when he has been writing the victim indecent letters about his daughter, and that it will not do to mix up the evidence taken at the Coroner's inquest with the evidence taken at the trial, and that jury duty is a very serious matter. No sermons, or charges from the judge, or addresses from counsel, have half as much effect on an ignorant man in rousing his conscience as the wrath of his neighbors. Doubtless it often works the wrong way, but as a general rule the indignation of the community is on the right side. It is its apathy and indifference which are apt to be immoral.

That eminent and well-known reformer, Mr. B. F. Butler, has written a strong letter condemning the Government officials for their failure to carry out the law which makes eight hours a day's work in the Government arsenals and workshops, and says he has a petition before the Court of Claims which will test the rights of all mechanics under the law. The truth about that law is that it was passed in one of the bursts of demagoguery which occasionally overtake Congress, under the influence of the labor agitation which raged in the United States as in other countries, with extraordinary fervor, fifteen years ago. The theory was produced at that period, and had a considerable run, that the day's work was twenty per cent. too long; that every laborer could produce as much in eight hours as in ten, and that even if he could not, the two hours' leisure would be so valuable to him, for purposes of self-culture, that he ought to have it, and that it ought to be secured to him by law. Legislation was therefore demanded from all the States making eight hours a legal day's labor. Of course, the silliness of the idea was apparent to everybody capable of the least reflection. None but the lowest grade of laborers could have been imposed on by it. There was no use in fixing the length of the working day at eight hours unless the rate of wages was also fixed, and unless every man was forbidden to work more than eight hours. As long as any man could work ten hours if he pleased, of course the eight-hour men would be fatally worsted in the labor market; and though time for culture might be very valuable, it would not fill their bellies. In fact, when one goes back now to the discussions which this matter called forth in 1868, one seems to be listening to Sunday-school lectures on political economy, and feels what great advances the

country has made since the war in what may be called "horse sense" in financial and economical matters. In that year Butler and a host of others were bellowing away daily in favor of an eight-hour law and unlimited greenbacks, and the repudiation or scaling of the national debt, and had a very respectable following. Now, when he revives one of his old cries, few people examine it from other motives than curiosity.

The wine production of California is reported to be steadily growing. In 1881 the vintage was about 9,000,000 gallons. In 1882 it was estimated to be between 10,000,000 and 11,000,000 gallons. In France it is noticed that the exportation of champagne from that country to the United States is seriously falling off. It was 123,574 dozen bottles during the first six months of 1881, and only 104,755 dozen during the corresponding six months of 1882. This is attributed to the substitution of California wines for French wines, the California wines being, according to an admission contained in a communication from the French Minister of Commerce to the President of the Reims Chamber of Commerce, "not much poorer" than some imported articles, and very much cheaper. California red and white still wines are passing in the same way for wines imported from France or Germany. The California wine-grower, or the merchant who buys from him, gives the California wine a foreign name for the purpose of finding a market for it. That policy may, in a certain degree, be successful, but it is after all a short-sighted policy. Some of the wines raised in California are really very good. If they continue to be sold under foreign labels, they will never make a reputation of their own. They will always be looked upon as cheats and counterfeits, which ought not to appear on a gentleman's table. Only when they assert their worth in their own names, will they be recognized as the equals of foreign products whenever they deserve it, and command a corresponding price.

A shocking social homicide was committed in Hill County, Texas, at a ball last week in a private house. One of the guests, Mr. T. P. Varnell, asked one of the daughters of the family, and his partner in the dance, to take a stroll with him outside the house, when he attempted to assault her. Her screams brought her father to the scene, whom Varnell incontinently shot dead. The affair, which has apparently occurred among persons in a good position in life, has roused an extraordinary amount of public indignation, and led to the formation of a county law-and-order association, the members of which bind themselves to answer all calls for assistance from the officers of the law, and to do whatever needs to be done to enforce its execution, even at the risk of their lives, and to pay the cost of arms, horses, and other necessities of persons belonging to the posse thus summoned; and in case any such member is injured, either in person or property, to hold them harmless, and prosecute all persons assailing or persecuting them. The creation of such organizations throughout the South would soon solve the homicide problem.

There is something very touching about the zeal of the philanthropists who are trying to secure "freedom of worship" for the young ragamuffins confined for their good in prisons and reformatories. The matter is now engaging the attention of the Legislature in Massachusetts, as well as that at Albany. It is proposed in Boston to change the law so that none of the little Massachusetts convicts shall be compelled to attend religious services other than those which have been the choice of their parents. In most cases, however, the parents of this class of young people are pretty difficult to find, and what is to be done then? The freedom-of-worship bill at Albany provides for this case by allowing the young convict to choose his own religion; so that he can insist on worshipping according to the Parsee or Buddhist faith if he desires. But how about agnostic infants? Have they no rights? Shall the young agnostic thief be compelled to violate his conscience while the Catholic, or Episcopalian, or Presbyterian pickpocket's scruples are so carefully protected?

The Government of Italy has fixed upon the 12th of April for the resumption of specie payments. Gold to the amount of \$83,500,000 has been accumulated for the purpose. This sum would seem to be ample to meet every exigency. It will be found, probably, that the demand for gold, when resumption-day comes, will be very little if any in excess of the requirements of bankers for foreign remittances. These requirements must be small, seeing that the gold premium a month ago was only one-half per cent. If the Government meets the demand boldly and pays out its coin freely, giving to the note holders the option of taking either gold or silver, according to their free choice, there cannot be any great drain upon the Treasury. If, on the other hand, it shows timidity and tries to force silver upon the public against their wishes, it will breed distrust and provoke a run. There is every reason to anticipate that the experiment of resumption will prove successful. It is worthy of remark that the cataclysm presaged by the bimetalists in the Paris Monetary Conference—to which Mr. Goschen, singularly enough, gave some countenance—as the result and consequence of gold resumption by the paper-money countries of Europe, is as far off as ever.

The later despatches show that it is generally acknowledged in England, as the result of the police investigations, that Lady Florence Dixie has either been guilty of a very gross attempt at imposture, or has been the victim of a kind of hysterical delusion of which there have been numerous examples. The absurdity of the tale as she told it was so patent that most people will incline to the latter explanation of her escapade. It appears that not only the gardener but a soldier and a woman were close by the spot on which she made the assault take place, at the hour she named, and heard nothing and saw nobody, and the damp mould of the shrubbery showed no trace of the deadly struggle. The affair will probably do good in diminishing or putting a stop to Lady

Florence's political activity. She has done some excellent work of a charitable kind in Ireland, but her explorations in politics, and especially those about the Land League fund, have been simply exasperating and confusing. She furnished, in fact, an excellent illustration of the inconveniences of female participation in exciting political controversies. She brought against the Land Leaguers, on evidence, if any existed, of the flimsiest kind, the double charge of embezzling the funds and using them to promote assassination. Of course the answer to such charges could not but seem brutal and truculent, and then there resulted naturally more or less English horror over the Land Leaguers' treatment of a "woman," to which she appears now to have appealed by exhibiting "stabs" in her corsets.

The English Lord Chancellor has introduced a bill into Parliament to modify the powers of judges to punish for contempt of court. At present the power is unlimited, and is, in fact, a vestige of the ancient arbitrary authority handed down from times when the sovereign administered justice in person. The bill fixes limits both as to length of imprisonment and fines. The right to punish without limit in the case of marriages of wards in Chancery is, we believe, retained, so that this may still furnish materials for the novelist and the composer of comic opera. The American heir is not mentioned in the bill, but whether the difficulties with which he always meets in getting the money awaiting a claimant in the vaults of the Bank of England, are connected in any way with the power to punish for contempt, we do not know. A deep obscurity envelops this branch of equity, and probably nothing short of a Parliamentary inquiry will ever clear it up.

The debate and division on Parnell's bill for amending the Irish Land Act are generally admitted by the Liberal press to be very serious in some of their aspects. The bill was intended to remedy what all admit are very grave defects in the Act, some of which have been revealed by judicial decisions. The principal are—the inability of the tenant to get the benefit of the Act from the time he gives notice of his intention to apply for it; its failure to cover the leaseholders, who constitute one-fourth of the tenant farmers; and its failure to protect the tenant against having to pay rent on his own improvements. Parnell had the direct support of all the Ulster members, who have hitherto stood by the Government, and of many English Liberals, such as Mr. James Bryce, who spoke in the debate, and the indirect support of others, who refrained from voting altogether. Parnell's speech was in places violent and injudicious, but Gladstone's flat refusal to hold out any hope of an amendment to the bill is felt to be a grave matter, as likely to alienate the Scotch-Irish of the North, and thus increase the Home-Rule forces at the next election. Mr. Shaw, one of the most moderate and respected of the Irish members, who has always held aloof from the Parnellites, has already made a speech in the North advising the farmers to throw off all allegiance to either English party, and vote for whichever promises them most.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

(WEDNESDAY, March 21, to THURSDAY, March 27, 1883, inclusive.)

DOMESTIC.

TIMOTHY O. HOWE, Postmaster-General of the United States, died at Kenosha, Wis., on Sunday. He was born in 1816 at Livermore, Me. He was a member of the Maine Legislature for a year, and in 1845 removed to Wisconsin, where he became Chief Justice of the State, and afterward for eighteen years United States Senator. He was a member of the Monetary Conference which met at Paris in 1881. In December of the same year he was appointed Postmaster-General by President Arthur. The President directs that the Post-office Department and its dependencies in the Capital shall be draped in mourning for a period of thirty days, that the several executive departments shall be closed on Wednesday next, the day of the funeral of the deceased, and that on all public buildings of the Government throughout the United States the national flag shall be draped in mourning and displayed at half-mast.

The Post-office Department has received and filed for examination a large number of claims of postmasters who are entitled to increased salary under the provisions of the Readjustment Act, known as the "Spaulding Bill," passed at the last session of Congress. An attorney representing a number of these postmasters is now in Washington, and has made an informal argument in their behalf at the Post office Department, maintaining that the increase of salaries provided for by the act may properly be paid out of the regular appropriation for salaries for the current fiscal year. The officers of the Post-office Department, however, assert that the law providing for the readjustment of postmasters' salaries cannot be carried into effect without a specific appropriation, and that to pay the amount of the increase of salaries out of the regular Appropriation Bill would create a large deficiency. It is the intention of the Department to begin the work of readjusting salaries under the two-cent postage law, as provided for in the Bingham Bill, as soon as possible.

The Second Assistant Postmaster-General has ordered the establishment of a post route in the Territory of Alaska, to extend from Haines to Juneau, a distance of 105 miles. The service will be monthly. The mails will probably be carried by canoe. The contract was awarded to Sheldon Jackson, of the New York Presbyterian Missionary Society. This is the first mail route established in Alaska.

Governor Ordway, of Dakota, has written a letter to the Secretary of the Interior giving some particulars with regard to affairs in that Territory. He says the Territorial Assembly adjourned on March 9, and that 300 of the bills passed by it have become laws; legislative provision was made for nine penal, charitable, and educational institutions to be situated in various parts of the Territory; and an issue of Territorial bonds to the amount of about \$400,000, bearing 5 and 6 per cent. interest, was authorized to provide funds for the erection of the necessary buildings. A bill was passed and approved naming nine of the most reputable men of the Territory as commissioners to select a place for the Territorial Capital and to erect, at a cost not exceeding \$100,000, the necessary Government buildings.

A statement has been prepared at the Treasury Department which shows the total estimated receipts of the Government for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1883, under the operations of the new Tariff Act, to be \$405,000,000. Of this amount \$220,000,000 is the estimated revenue from customs; \$143,500,000 from internal revenue, and \$41,500,000 from miscellaneous sources. The revenues for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1882, were as follows: From customs, \$220,410,000; from internal revenue, \$146,497,000; from miscellaneous sources, \$36,618,000; total, \$403,525,000.

Attention has recently been drawn to the fact

that the new Civil-Service Law is silent as to any distinction to be made between male and female applicants for places in the executive departments. The problem of reconciling this state of affairs with the present practice in most of the departments, of giving male applicants for office the preference in appointments, is now the subject of consideration by the Civil-Service Commissioners. The rules to be drawn up by the Commission will, it is understood, contain some provision bearing upon this question, the Commissioners being cognizant of the necessities of the public service and the opposition on the part of heads of departments to any large increase in the number of female clerks.

Stephen W. Dorsey was put on the witness stand by the defence in the Star-route trials on Monday. Before taking the oath he was asked some questions by the prosecution in regard to his belief in a "future state of rewards and punishments," which brought Mr. Ingersoll to his feet with an indignant address in regard to the "perpetuation of this monstrosity of the dark ages." The Court ruled that, under the Act of March 16, 1878, the defendant was allowed to testify. Dorsey's evidence, like Brady's, was a succession of sweeping denials. He had never entered into a conspiracy with Brady, John Dorsey, Vaile, Miner, or any or either of them to defraud the Government by bidding for mail contracts. He never had any transaction with Brady to the extent of one cent in his life. He had never given any direction to Rerdell to open an account with William Smith, or with Samuel Jones, or with John H. Mitchell, nor had he ever stated to Rerdell, or any one else, that William Smith stood for Brady. On Tuesday he flatly denied all of Rerdell's most damaging statements.

The Grand Jury at Washington on Tuesday brought in two indictments against ex-Senator Kellogg, of Louisiana, and two new indictments against Brady. The first presentment against Kellogg charges him with (while Senator) receiving \$20,000 from Price, a mail contractor, with which to bribe Brady to allow to Price an increase of pay and compensation for carrying the mails over certain routes. The second presentment charges Kellogg and Brady jointly with having conspired with Price to defraud the Government by means of false oaths and fraudulent claims for increased pay. The two presentments against Brady charge him with having received \$25,000 for awarding the contracts on the routes described in the presentment against Kellogg.

Four survivors of the *Jeannette* arrived in New York on Tuesday morning by the steamer *Westphalia*. Two of the men were seamen, one a fireman and the other a coal-passer. Their names are: James H. Bartlett, Herbert W. Leach, Francis Manson, and John Lauterbach. They were in good health, and were highly praised for their behavior during the expedition by Chief Engineer Melville and Lieutenant Danenhower. The *Jeannette* Court of Inquiry will now be reconvened about April 1.

The remains of John Howard Payne, the author of "Home, Sweet Home," arrived at New York on Thursday, and were taken to the City Hall, where they lay in state and were visited by thousands of people. On Friday they were taken to Washington by a special train, and will be interred at Oak Hill Cemetery on the 9th of June, the ninety-first anniversary of his birth, and services in honor of his memory will be held at the grave.

The Tennessee Senate on Friday adopted a resolution authorizing a settlement with the defaulting Treasurer, Polk. He is to be allowed to pay \$175,000 in Tennessee bonds and \$75,000 in notes issued by the Bank of Tennessee, which shall be credited upon his deficit for the sum of \$250,000, and which, when paid, shall relieve his sureties. But nothing in the act is to prevent the prosecution of Polk.

A Senate committee nearly two years ago began an investigation into the accounts of ex-State Treasurer Churchill, of Arkansas, then Governor, who had served as Treasurer for six years on three terms. The committee spent a year on the accounts and reported a deficit of \$114,000. When the Legislature met in January last the House refused to accept the report, saying the law required an investigation by a joint committee. Finally a joint committee was appointed and the work was begun anew. On Saturday a final report was made which charges a deficit, according to the face of the books, of \$233,600 87. The difference in the two reports causes much comment. The matter is to be brought before the courts.

The coming election of the Mayor in Chicago will be made to turn on the license question. At a conference on Monday between the Citizens' Committee and the Republican managers, the former adopted a platform for the Mayoralty campaign declaring for a license of \$250 a year for beer saloons, and \$500 for shops selling distilled liquors. The Republicans took no action, but tacitly acquiesced in this declaration of principles. The Republicans and Citizens are running a joint city ticket.

The "straight-out" Democrats of Rhode Island have bolted the Sprague ticket, and published an address calling upon all true Democrats to support a ticket headed by Charles R. Cutter and Horace A. Kimball for Governor and Lieutenant-Governor. Another blow to Sprague's chances has been given by the refusal of George, the nominee on the Sprague ticket for Lieutenant-Governor, to run.

A despatch from Uniontown, Penn., says that N. L. Dukes, the murderer of Nutt, arrived there on Sunday night, and on Monday morning a committee of citizens presented him with resolutions adopted at the recent indignation meeting, and gave him notice that he would have twenty-four hours within which to transact his business and leave the town.

A general call of the National League of Ireland and the Irish National Land League of the United States and Canada has been issued for an Irish-American National Convention, to be held in Philadelphia on April 26. It is announced that Mr. Parnell will surely be present.

Another move has been made by the opponents of President Porter, of Union College, to oust him from his position. It is in the shape of a bill providing that six of the State officers who are members of the Board of Trustees of Union College shall cease to be Trustees, and that the vacancies then created shall be filled at the next annual meeting of the Alumni, which takes place at Commencement in June next. As the majority of the Alumni are thought to be opposed to President Porter, it is expected that the new Trustees will be "anti-Porter men." The bill has passed both houses of the Legislature, and is now before the Governor.

The St. Louis *Post-Dispatch* has reports of the winter wheat crop from over 200 counties in those parts of Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Tennessee, Kansas, Missouri, and Texas where winter wheat is grown. The reports from Missouri and Kansas show that the condition is good, the acreage is fully equal to last year, and the damage so far is no greater than is usual at this time of year. Tennessee and Illinois give fair reports, but Kentucky and Indiana, especially the latter, show considerable damage. From Texas reports are meagre, but those received are good. It is learned from other sources that the condition is generally good, with a fair prospect for a full crop. The reports also show that a large amount of last year's corn crop still remains in the above-named States.

FOREIGN.

A despatch from London on Thursday said that the police were in possession of a clew to

the explosion in the office of the Local Government Board. A woman observed, and has fully described, the appearance of a man who was apparently placing an infernal machine against the building. It is expected that an arrest will be made soon.

Two thousand infantry have been ordered to protect the public buildings in London, and the Coldstream Guards have been posted in the Parliament Buildings and Buckingham Palace.

Lady Florence Dixie's story is now very generally disbelieved. Captain O'Shea, Home-Rule Member of Parliament for County Clare, has informed Sir William Harcourt, Home Secretary, that when the House of Commons assembled after the Easter holidays he will ask whether Lady Florence Dixie formerly hoaxed the public by the invention of a letter from King Cetewayo, and whether, as a result of the inquiry into the alleged assault upon her at Windsor, the police have concluded that Lady Florence is an impostor.

A Dublin despatch says that counsel for the defence in the murder conspiracy trials are confident that they will be able to shake the testimony of James Carey. Cardinal Manning has issued an appeal asking for a collection in aid of the distressed people in Ireland. In the trial of Nugent and twelve other members of the Armagh Assassination Society, on the charge of conspiracy to murder, at Belfast on Friday, the jury rendered a verdict of guilty. On Tuesday six more members of the society were found guilty.

The London *Times* of Saturday pointed out that the Belfast jury which rendered a verdict of guilty upon Nugent and his associates accepted as authentic a diary kept by the plotters, in which it was reported that a man had sworn, at the request of the Land League, to kill a landlord named Brooke.

The Dublin *Freeman's Journal* states that the correspondence which has passed between the Home Office and Mr. Lowell, the United States Minister, has resulted in the former's renouncing all hope of securing the extradition of the person known as "Number One." The *Journal* declares that "Number One," whose name is Tyner, was in Dublin until the first day James Carey was examined at the hearing of the conspirators. He then managed to reach Bremen, by way of Hull. From Bremen he proceeded to Havre, and thence to New York. He was a member of one of the London volunteer corps.

Mr. Parnell, who is now in Paris, has made a number of statements there which have attracted attention. He is reported to have said, among other things, that the Government came to him while in Kilmainham Jail and asked him to intervene and suppress outrages. It is asserted that he will be asked in Parliament either to confirm or deny some of these statements.

A rumor was circulated during the week to the effect that the British Government, through Mr. West, had intimated "that the violent expressions which certain professed American citizens have given utterance to since the recent explosion in London may disturb the otherwise amicable relations existing between Her Majesty's Government and the United States," but it is asserted to be entirely without foundation. The London *Daily Telegraph* of Monday treated as preposterous the report that the British Government had sent a menacing note to Washington in regard to the utterances and writings of the Irish dynamite party in America. It said that the United States Government's attitude of indifference at the ravings of these men is the same as that which England has always adopted toward exiles taking refuge in this country.

While the service in St. Paul's Cathedral, London, was in progress on Saturday a well-dressed man ran up the altar steps with his hat on, leaped upon the altar and dashed the cross, candlesticks, vases, and flowers to the ground. The Dean and several of the choristers secured

the man after a struggle and gave him into the custody of the police. In the excitement many persons left the church, horrified at the sight.

The great review and sham fight of the Volunteer troops took place on Monday at Brighton, England. The weather was fine and cold, and favorable for the movements of the men, about 20,000 of whom were engaged.

John Bright delivered an address on Thursday as Rector of Glasgow University. He said that American independence, the French Revolution, and the English Reform Bill had transferred power from monarchs and statesmen to the people, and dwelt upon the advisability of a peaceable policy even with a view to self-interest. The cost of the civil war in America, he declared, would more than have sufficed to free every slave without bloodshed. With regard to Ireland, he said that if the Treaty of Limerick had been fulfilled and freedom of religion granted, the sad history of that country might never have been recorded. India was the great problem of the future.

A meeting of the English Revolutionary League has been held in London to consider the question of holding a great international convention of revolutionists. The President of the meeting said that the Government officials now recognize the fact that dynamite is an important factor in political life. It was resolved to invite Louise Michel and other prominent Socialists to the proposed convention.

An explosion occurred on Saturday night near the Ministry of Justice at Rome. Upon investigation, remnants of a bottle which had been filled with gunpowder were discovered. A man, who is supposed to have placed the bottle there, has been arrested. He had in his possession a portrait of Overdunk, the bomb manufacturer, who was executed in Austria.

A socialistic manifesto is in circulation in the southern part of Russia inviting the people during the coming fêtes on the occasion of the coronation of the Czar to pillage the houses of the nobles and Jews. A deputation of nobles has gone to St. Petersburg to ask Count Tolstoi, the Minister of the Interior, to provide for the protection of their property.

The London *Standard's* Varna correspondent says that business at Erzerum is at a standstill, in consequence of the movement of the Russians in the Caucasus. The growing opinion is that a Russo-Turkish conflict is imminent. The Armenians are wearied with the indifference shown by Great Britain to their wrongs, and would welcome Russian occupation. The Russians along the frontier number 100,000.

A despatch to the *Daily Telegraph* from Vienna says that several villages at the foot of Mount Ararat have been destroyed by snow avalanches. It is stated that 150 persons have been killed and 100 injured.

The inhabitants of Carlevo, Sopot, and Kaloter, in Rumelia, have risen against the importation of foreign woollen thread, and several depots containing such thread have been pillaged and burned. The militia refused to suppress the outbreak.

Mount Etna has been in a state of active eruption. A new crater has opened, and the lava threatened to overwhelm Nicolosi and other villages. The people in the threatened places left their homes. There are eleven fissures in the mountain. On Monday the eruption had subsided, and all danger was over.

A despatch from Geneva says that the emigration from Switzerland to America is assuming alarming proportions. Several districts are fast becoming depopulated. The exodus is owing to bad harvests and American competition. The Swiss Consul in New York, however, declares the report untrue.

The *North German Gazette* says that one of the main obstacles to peace between Prussia

and the Roman Curia is the continued presence at the Vatican of Cardinal Ledochowski, Archbishop of Posen. The Prussian Government has informed the Vatican that Cardinal Ledochowski can quit the Vatican without fear of arrest, as the extradition treaty does not apply in his case. It is stated that Prussia, in answer to a note of Cardinal Jacobini, Papal Secretary of State, has refused to concede the demands of the latter relative to education and the appointment of priests, and that all the negotiations up to the present time have been a failure.

Despatches from Berlin say that the Spanish Minister there is about to go on a furlough, and will probably remain absent until the settlement of the differences between Spain and Germany with regard to customs duties. The treaty of commerce between Germany and Mexico has been submitted to the Bundesrath. It secures the safety of the retail trade and the freedom of property owned by Germans in Mexico from forced loans or war charges.

The American artists in Paris have formed a committee to draw up a petition to Congress, asking for a repeal of the clause in the new Tariff Act increasing the tax on works of art.

A French transport, with 500 troops for the Tonquin expedition, arrived at Hongkong on February 21, increasing the number of the force to 2,500 infantry. No active hostilities are expected, however, a pacific settlement having been arranged.

Tewfik Bey, formerly Minister of Finance, has been appointed Turkish Minister at Washington.

Dr. Francisco Garcia Calderon, who is a prisoner in Chili, has addressed a note to Dr. Logan in which he objects to the despatch addressed by the latter to Admiral Montero, and objects to its having been given publicity. In this note Dr. Calderon informs the public, for the first time, that he was once on the verge of making peace, but failed to do so owing to the Chilians augmenting their demands. The condition of affairs in Peru continues unaltered, but as the Chilians have released several of their more important prisoners who have returned to Peru to advocate peace, the prospects continue to improve.

There is a revolution in Ecuador. Dictator Veintimilla is in Guayaquil, but it is probable that the revolutionary troops will soon enter the city without a struggle. Business is bad and the coffee trade has been almost destroyed by the war. Rioting has been prevented by the presence of an Italian and a British man-of-war.

London advices from Buenos Ayres under date of February 24 report that a fight occurred in Patagonia between Argentine and Chilean troops, owing to the refusal of the former to quit Chilean territory. Several men were killed and a number wounded. The Argentine troops finally retired across the border. Another despatch from South America reports the Chilean troops to be marching upon the city of La Paz, in Bolivia.

The Chinese authorities protest vehemently against the injustice of the British with respect to telegraph stations. The Hong Kong Government recently prohibited the landing of a telegraph line in that colony. The Chinese now oppose the landing of a British line at Shanghai. The British Consul has received instructions from home to effect and maintain a landing by force if necessary.

The *Commercial Advertiser* of Honolulu, referring to reports of the general spread of leprosy in the Sandwich Islands, says that certain districts of the island of Kauai, comprising an area of 300 square miles of the most densely populated portion of the kingdom, with 10,000 inhabitants, have been thoroughly searched for lepers by the Board of Health. The result was that twenty-eight native and no foreign lepers were found.

ENGLAND AND THE IRISH-AMERICANS.

EVER since the Irish troubles entered on their present phase, in 1880, it has been recognized clearly in England that they owed a great deal of their gravity to the help and encouragement which the malcontents received from their countrymen on this side of the water. Without this help and encouragement the Land League could hardly have been organized and carried on as it was. A very large, if not the larger, part of its funds came from America, and with the money there came what was perhaps of more importance than money, the assurance that the Irishmen in Ireland had at their back nearly as many more in the United States. This was an absolutely new feature in the Irish situation. In their past struggles with England, the Irish have had no outside aid to rely on but that of France, and that was only twice given, and was given grudgingly and on a small scale, and never accomplished anything. All through the eighteenth century there was a large body of Irishmen in the French service, and sympathy for Ireland was one of the traditions of French foreign policy, which was maintained after the Revolution and found expression in Humbert's small expedition in 1798. In the Rebellion of 1798 France was the principal reliance of the insurgents, and this feeling was still so strong, fifty years later, that it was undoubtedly the Revolution of 1848 in Paris which precipitated the melancholy outbreak of the Young Irelanders in that year.

Now all is changed. What is, for the purposes of the Irish malcontents, to all intents and purposes another Ireland has sprung up on this side of the Atlantic, which is worth a hundredfold more to them than France ever was, particularly as America is now far nearer Ireland than France was even fifty years ago. Moreover, the Irish in America are better off pecuniarily than Irishmen of the same way of thinking ever were before. They number nearly 2,000,000, too, and count, as enemies of England, for fully double that number of the population of Ireland before the famine of 1847. The consolation the London *Times* has, therefore, more than once found in the reflection that Irish discontent is no longer the formidable thing it used to be—because, while Irishmen were a third of the population of the British Isles at the beginning of the century, they are now only a sixth or seventh—is but poor consolation, after all. It must be admitted by every candid observer that, considered as a menace to English peace, the Irish population is now more formidable than it has ever been, and much better furnished with weapons of aggression. The great emigration which the *Times* in 1848 rejoiced over with such unfortunate glee, far from proving a relief to British politics, has prepared the present crisis, and is now giving it terrible aggravation. The population of Ireland is, for political purposes, nearer 10,000,000 than 5,000,000, and can give a dollar for English torment where forty years ago it could only give a cent.

It is not surprising, under these circumstances, that the British Government should be very anxious to have the United States do some-

thing to restrain the Irish agitators, and, above all, the truculent and bloodthirsty Irish press, on this side of the water in their efforts to promote turbulence and crime in Ireland. It would not be surprising, even if the Irish newspapers here were not as ferocious as they are, and even if they did not furnish weekly encouragement to the perpetrators of outrages in Ireland, and help to persuade them that the blowing up of public buildings and the assassination of public officers are acts of "war."

For the last two years the English press has abounded with remonstrance to the American Government on this subject. It is every now and then asked to muzzle the *Irish World*, and to prevent people like O'Donovan Rossa from collecting money avowedly for the commission of crime in Great Britain and Ireland. There are rumors to-day that an official note embodying these complaints has found its way to Washington, and will have shortly to be answered. We cannot help doubting that there is any truth in this, but if any such note has come, the answer is unhappily very easy. We have, in the first place, no law for the punishment of such offences, and the reasons why we could not get one passed in deference to English susceptibilities are substantially the same as the reasons which prevented the passage of a similar bill in 1858, on the demand of the French Government, by the British Parliament. Lord Palmerston's Ministry fell under the attempt to carry that bill at that time, not because Englishmen approved of attempts to assassinate foreign rulers, but because they were unwilling to legislate in aid of foreign governments trying to stifle internal discontent, or to restrict in so doing the right of asylum to political refugees. Anybody who proposed such legislation here would fare no better.

Moreover, in case such a law were passed, it could not be executed through juries. The attempt to restrain freedom of speech on political topics by law was once tried in this country, at a period when people had far more respect for official authority than they have now, and it failed ignominiously. It would fail more ignominiously to-day. No American jury could be got to sit long on the question whether Irish exiles were justified in using threats and foul language in their newspapers against English officials. They would say, naturally enough, that as England appears to be unable to restrain Irish license in speech and behavior on Irish soil, with a large army and fleet, it was asking too much to expect Americans to help her in the work here. Unquestionably any such trial would end in the triumph of the "assassination press," and in enlisting on the Irish side the sympathies of tens of thousands of Americans who now pay no attention to the Irish question whatever, or are thoroughly disgusted with the Irish mode of agitating. No worse service could be rendered to the British Government to-day than an effort to force an expression of opinion on the merits of the Irish controversy from any body of Americans, even a body so small as a jury. There is, in fact, only one way for England out of the difficulty, and that is to come to terms with reasonable Irishmen. Having done this, she will not suffer long from the unreasonable

Irishmen. At present, she is trying to govern Irishmen, reasonable and unreasonable, in a way that will suit the prejudices of Englishmen. In that undertaking she cannot expect much aid from busy and uninterested foreigners. That it is chimerical, nearly everybody out of England sees. It is high time it came to an end.

SPORTS IN AND OUT OF COLLEGE.

PRESIDENT McCOSH has written a letter on the subject of college sports, in which he takes up the common complaint, that college students are allowed to devote themselves to the pursuit of athletics at the expense of those branches of learning which they are, in theory, sent to college to acquire. There is a pretty widespread impression that, as he puts it, the *enthusiasm* of college life tends in the direction, not of literature or science, "but of muscles and bones"; and he tells an anecdote of a father who, on the occasion of his son's graduation, bitterly remarked to a professor that he had sent his boy to college to become a scholar, but that what he had learnt there only fitted him for a position in a circus.

"Certainly the ambitious boy with a big body and a little mind feels it to be a mighty reward when he gets, because he has performed a feat, a cheer from 10,000 people assembled on the field in which Yale and Harvard are fighting for the headship. As the most fatal issue of this spirit, perhaps the idlest fellow in his studies becomes the hero of his class, is fêted, and gets the honors which his class has to bestow. It follows, incidentally, that the fine scholar is not appreciated, and is spoken of as a plodder, and branded with similar opprobrious epithets. Another incidental consequence has followed, I am sorry to say. Some students, and graduates, too, not satisfied with seeing the pure display of agility, wish something more stimulating, and bet on one side or the other; and among a few there is a considerable amount of gambling, stirring up the lowest passions of our nature, such as avarice and selfishness, and leading on to mercantile gambling, ending, it may be, if not in bankruptcy of fortune, in bankruptcy of character."

Admitting the evil, President McCosh says very justly that the true way to meet it is that already taken at Harvard—for the colleges themselves to undertake the supervision and regulation of college sports. To try to break up rowing and base-ball and foot-ball would be absurd, but students may be prevented from playing with professionals who earn their living by means of athletics, limits may be imposed as to the time allowed for sports, in short, the colleges may recognize that not only physical training but physical contests are an indispensable part of college life—just as much so as are the intellectual contests which result in "rank" or "honors."

It is really practically out of the question for any university to encourage athletic sports and at the same time to set its face against races, matches, and other contests in which proficiency in them is measured. Anybody who will try to picture to himself what sort of a place a college would be if the undergraduates pulled in wherries, exercised on parallel bars, ran, walked, and played ball solely for the purpose of physical "culture," and without any idea of rivalry or emulation, or of being found worthy of a place in a racing crew, or of holding a position in a college "nine," will at once see that races and matches and games and con-

tests of all sorts are what give to college athletics nine-tenths of their impetus. Hence it is useless to say that athletic exercise is a good thing, but that athletic contests ought to be altogether tabooed, and of course the objectors to them would hardly insist on the colleges going so far as this. What they object to principally is the waste of time taken up in training for "intercollegiate regattas," and the great college ball matches. It should not be forgotten, however, with regard to this, that the number of undergraduates who are drawn away from their studies by the necessities of training is extremely small, and that they belong, in nine cases out of ten, to a class little likely to devote itself to mental work under any circumstances. A young man whose body is his chief capital, may as well employ it, and he can hardly employ it more innocently than by athletic discipline. The colleges are every year more and more abandoning the old theory that an undergraduate must be kept at his tasks and have them set for him like a schoolboy; and under the new system, those who have no intellectual ambition will waste a good deal of their time in any case. College sports save them from so much idleness, if they do nothing more.

It must be remembered that the *enthusiasm* for sport is not confined to college students, but is a feature of modern life outside as well as inside the colleges, and as a matter of fact it runs a much wilder riot outside of them than it does inside. It is not college students who are responsible for the profound interest taken by the public at large, and stimulated by the press, not merely in races or base-ball matches, but in six-day walking matches, starving contests, quail-eating against time, and "events" which are of positive injury to the human body, and are, in fact, merely got up to furnish an opportunity for betting. Any college boy who reads the newspapers must infer from the space devoted to such contests that it is at least an open question whether the honor and glory to be obtained by success in this field is not as great as that to be got by distinguished services in the church, or at the bar, or in public life. A college athlete might fairly maintain that as long as the adult world delights to magnify the fame of prize-fighters, and billiard-players, and quail-eaters, and eagerly crowds to get the news of their performances—just as if they were important discoveries or achievements in science, literature, and art—he may be excused for doubting whether, after all, an enthusiasm for study and mental improvement pays. We have before us a telegraphic despatch giving an account of an event which took place in Philadelphia last week, intended to appeal to adult interest in sport. It was an international "jigging" match between a distinguished Philadelphian jig-dancer named Morton, and a no less eminent performer from Dublin. It drew a great crowd, the theatre was densely packed, and the "excitement ran high." Any college student may fairly insist that boating and base-ball playing are much loftier objects of devotion than this.

The craze for sports, contests, and "events" is a feature of the modern world, and to expect the enthusiasm not to show itself in the

colleges would be absurd. In fact, it has forced its way there rather against the feeling of the faculties than by their aid; and considering to what amazing excesses the love of "sports" of all kinds tends in the adult world, it is rather surprising that the college sports are, on the whole, still confined to honest boyish contests of bone and muscle. The promise of leading colleges to supervise and regulate these may serve to reassure us as to the future. College supervision may check the spread of the feeling among undergraduates, which adults do so much to encourage, that a man who can walk five hundred miles in six days, or live without taking food for a month, or "jig" twenty steps in seventeen minutes, is a great public character, who reflects credit on his country and age, and whose memory will be cherished as a precious possession by generations to come.

THE LATE MR. JOHN RICHARD GREEN.

LONDON, March 16, 1883.

FEW books published in England during late years have been so widely read or so heartily appreciated in America as Mr. J. R. Green's "Short History of the English People." It made its way at once over the Continent and into the homes of persons of all classes. It gave people ideas about English history they had never received before. It still keeps, and seems long likely to keep, its place as the historical work of this generation which is at once most instructive and most popular. Some account, therefore, of the author of this famous book, who has just expired at Mentone, in the South of France, may be acceptable to those American readers who gratefully remember the pleasure he has given them.

Mr. Green was born at Oxford in 1837, educated at a school there, and afterward at Jesus College in Oxford University. He took his degree there in 1861. But the college was in those days (for it is said to have greatly improved since) one of the least useful in the University. Its teaching was poor, and as its undergraduates were nearly all Welshmen, they mixed but little with the members of other colleges. Mr. Green, accordingly, though his abilities were recognized by a few friends, had no opportunity of making himself generally known in the University, and left it without leaving the mark that might have been expected from him. He was ordained a clergyman of the Church of England, and immediately took a curacy in London, from which he was soon promoted to the pastoral charge of the parish of St. Philip's, Stepney, a district in one of the poorest and most neglected parts of East London. Here he labored for several years with immense zeal and energy, devoting his efforts—as largely happens in England, especially among ministers of the Established Church—to promoting the social and material, as well as the spiritual, benefit of the parishioners. He left Oxford a strong High Churchman, although the first strength of the High Church movement had pretty well spent itself before his time. But his keen and naturally somewhat sceptical mind soon began to question the ecclesiastical position in which his early training had placed him, and he ceased not only to be a High Churchman, but to feel himself comfortable as a clergyman at all. His health, naturally far from strong, had also suffered from hard work under unfavorable conditions and by the strain of the pulpit, for he preached with singular fire and force, throwing himself into his subject with a brilliance that would have made his church crowded had it lain anywhere near the better parts of London.

These two causes led him to retire from pastoral work; and the appointment of librarian to the Arcneopiscopal Library at Lambeth, which he received in 1867, gave him easier duties, and enabled him to devote the rest of his time to literature and history. Already, from his college days, he had been warmly interested in historical and archaeological studies, had written some detached papers on those subjects, had gathered a good library, had begun to accumulate materials for a history of the Angevin Kings of England. The small circle of friends that knew him privately knew how great his powers were; but the general public, though it had read with admiration the reviews of historical books which he occasionally contributed to the *Saturday Review*, had never heard of his name until the publication of his "Short History of the English People." That book, so bright, vivacious, and rapid in its movement, was the fruit of many years of patient thought and study, had been twice almost wholly rewritten, and would perhaps not have appeared even when it did, so high was the standard of merit which its author set before himself, had not his declining health and the urgency of his friends compelled him to publish it as it stood, rather than spend more time in re-revising it. He was, however, so far from thinking it complete that very soon after its publication he set himself to prepare a larger book in the same spirit, filling up whatever had been inadequately treated in the "Short History," and correcting some mistakes of detail into which he had fallen. This more elaborate work was completed in four volumes some three years ago. Although it represents his maturer thought and is more exact in details than the "Short History," it has not superseded the latter in popular favor, partly on account of its greater bulk, partly because the brilliant boldness and swift march of the earlier book have more attractions for most readers than that somewhat more guarded and quiet strain which a historian who is again traversing old ground is led to adopt.

In 1877 Mr. Green entered on the happiest part of his life, having been married in that year to a lady of remarkable gifts, who entered warmly into all his tastes and pursuits, and not only by her care kept at bay the attacks of pulmonary disease, but doubled his effectiveness for literary work by the help she gave him. Although his life could not have been a long one, it might have lasted for eight or ten years more had he not unfortunately contracted an illness in Egypt in the spring of 1881. He returned to London so weak that for some time his recovery was despaired of, but good nursing and his own indomitable spirit brought him round, and in the five months that followed he finished and brought through the press a book, the "Making of England," which describes the conquest and settlement of England by the Angles and Saxons, and the consolidation of their tribes and kingdoms down to the time of Egbert. I need say the less about it because a review of it which appeared in the *Nation* about a year ago did justice to the extraordinary pains and skill with which a picture of Britain as the Romans left it was drawn, and a narrative of the English conquest and an exposition of the social as well as political phenomena of primitive England constructed out of scanty and scattered materials—materials which would have remained barren and useless in any less ingenious hands.

Mr. Green was now compelled to spend every winter at Mentone, far from books, and even when able to work at all could never work for more than three or four hours a day. But the less strength he had, and the more quickly he felt the shadows to be closing around him, so

much the more eager was he to turn what time and strength remained to the best account. When he returned to London last summer, he addressed himself to continue the story of early English history down to Norman or Angevin times, and had almost completed, before winter drove him back to the Mediterranean coast, another volume of five hundred pages, which he proposed to call the 'Conquest of England.' This book is all, or nearly all, in print, and will doubtless soon appear. Though it will want his last corrections, it cannot fail to be of the utmost value to students as well as enjoyable by the ordinary reader, for learning never seemed to weigh him down, or dulled the grace and liveliness of his fascinating style. He had scarcely reached Mentone, in the end of last October, when he became weak and feverish, and from that time on, with occasional rallies, he became constantly weaker in body, though his mind, till the last few days, never lost its freshness and power. During two years, those who saw him used to wonder that with a frame so wasted he could live at all. It was the strength of his will, the quenchless ardor of his spirit, that gave him this strange vitality, prolonging life in the midst of death. He was forty-five years of age, and left no children.

Words spoken over a grave are distrusted, as apt to proceed rather from sorrowing friendship than from a dispassionate judgment. But the highest historical authorities, both here and in America, have years ago allotted to Mr. Green one of the first places among the historians not only of this generation, but of this century. He has certainly left behind him no one who combines so many great and admirable gifts for historical composition. We have men equally learned, equally industrious. We have a few whose accuracy is more perfect than his was, whose judgment is more uniformly safe and cautious. But we have not, and may not for many years to come have, any one who united to so much learning and so wide a range of interest, such wonderful ingenuity, acuteness, originality of view, and such a power of presenting his results in rich, clear, and picturesque language. A great master of style may be a worthless historian. We have some conspicuous instances of the phenomenon. An admirable investigator and sound reasoner may be unreadable. Examples are not wanting of this also. The conjunction of the highest gifts for investigation with the highest gifts for presenting results in a perfect form is a very rare conjunction, which it is impossible to value too highly; for by inducing people to read history who would be repelled from any laborious study it enables them not only to gain just facts and conclusions, but to learn something of the method by which those facts and conclusions are established. The fame which Mr. Green won by his 'Short History' provoked some sharp criticism from other students. Small inaccuracies were discovered and paraded. Critics who did not know how hard he had worked declared that although he was a brilliant writer, he was not a safe guide, and that his praise was that of a popularizer. There could not have been a greater mistake. The merits of the book—its wealth of thought, its richness of color, its sympathy with the times and men it describes—were due not to mere literary dexterity, which, indeed, could never produce such results, but to the patient and intimate study he had given to the annals and the literature of England. He described the landscape so well because he knew it so well, and had marked many small points that had escaped previous observers. Still, it is true that in the 'Short History' he was, by the very magnitude of the subject, obliged to approve his historical capacity rather by bold generalizations than by a careful

study of details; and the generalizations, though always interesting, were often open to debate. It was in his 'Making of England,' which was the fruit of independent research, some of the materials never having been brought together before and others never used for the same purpose, that the distinctive capacity of the historian, as distinguished from that of the brilliant writer, most plainly appeared. And those who know what he could have done, and would have done, for the later periods of English mediæval history; how admirable was his insight into their life and feeling; how vivid their figures and events would have become under his pen, will never cease to regret that his career should have been closed when what he has done seems only an earnest of what he might have done with twenty more years of life.

The impression of great and varied power which his personality gave, rose even above the reputation his writings enjoyed in the world. His ill health and long absences from England made him seldom seen in London society; but those who visited him, even in the last two years of sickness and weakness, used to say that nowhere else in London did they hear such talk as in his little drawing-room at Kensington. The swiftness of his mind, its fertility in perceiving new points and setting a well-worn subject in a new light, was hardly more remarkable than the wealth of anecdotes and illustrations which rose at his touch. With a somewhat loose verbal memory, a memory which found it hard to retain a precise form of words, he had a very wide and ready memory for matters of substance. He was the best of story-tellers, dramatizing every incident so happily that you felt that the thing must have happened, or certainly ought to have happened, exactly as he related it. Unlike many famous talkers, he listened as well as he talked, and one great part of the pleasure his conversation gave was that it made the interlocutor feel raised above his ordinary level, so stimulating one's mind that one seemed to hit on better thoughts and apter expressions than one could at any other time.

He was a very keen politician, seldom taking any active part in politics, and, indeed, prevented in later years by his health from doing so, but caring intensely about the affairs of England and of Europe. Nothing ever interfered with his reading the newspapers, following and discussing everything that passed. Those who have read his History will not need to be told that in domestic politics he was a very decided Liberal, prepared, for instance, to go much further than almost any Englishman in the way of leaving Ireland to herself, while he had the warmest interest in and affection for America. He used to say that a historian of the English people had at least as much concern with what befell the English people west of the Atlantic after 1776 as with their fortunes on this side, and there were few more diligent students of American books and institutions. Y.

HEINRICH VON TREITSCHKE.*

BERLIN, February.

RICH as German historical literature has been of late, none of its publications has created more sensation than the second volume of Treitschke's 'Recent German History.' The author is valued as one of our most prominent and best prose writers, a patriotic man of great powers, and an able controversialist. In my opinion, he is an enthusiastic essayist rather than an impartial observer, and an aggressive and petulant party

man rather than a cool and sober critic. His idiosyncrasies often make him an unjust special pleader; but, in spite of all these shortcomings, as a scholar he has gained great influence on our youth in a good and in a bad sense. It was he who early joined that contemptible anti-Semitic band in its attacks on our Jewish population, and who, by his reputation, gave a prestige to clownish court preachers, indifferent professors, dismissed officers, and other obscure gentlemen involved in debts and looking out for something to turn up.

Treitschke, as Professor of History at the Berlin University, has audiences of 400 to 500 students, and, although deaf, knows how to inspire them with his own enthusiasm. For long years the editor of the *Preussische Jahrbücher* (Prussian Annals), he formerly exclusively published valuable essays on public men of the present and the past, on constitutional questions and historical subjects. The collection of these essays belongs to the best class of our political literature, and has been published in three volumes and four editions. His great work, the 'History of Germany during the Nineteenth Century,' is to be completed in six heavy octavo volumes of about seven hundred pages each. Its first volume opens with a very able retrospective view of the old empire, characterizes the downfall and resurrection of Prussia, and closes with the Peace of Paris. The present one treats of the beginning of the German Confederation, and comprises only the three years from 1816 to 1819; but during this short period the foundation was laid for the reconstruction of Prussia and Germany. The intellectual movements and currents in literature, art, and science are delineated by Treitschke with a master hand. This chapter belongs among the best that have been written on the subject; it is catholic in its grasp, noble and inspiring in its tone and execution. Other interesting chapters, which largely increase the stock of our historical knowledge, are those treating of the Congress at Aix-la-Chapelle, the Karlsbad resolutions, and the reactionary movement in Prussia.

The author has had access to the Prussian archives, and found there a real treasury of unpublished documents, which throw quite a new light on that time and its leading characters. What some severe critics, and even his friends, blame him for is, that he has not correctly reproduced the printed authorities for his statements; that he has not loyally availed himself of his documentary evidence; and that even, here and there, he has distorted events in order to adapt them to his bias and preconceived notions. Three competent historians in particular attack Treitschke rather bitterly as an untruthful historical writer—viz., Prof. H. Baumgarten, of Strassburg, Const. Bulle, of Bremen, and A. Stern, of Berne. Their principal objections to his narrative are, that he mistakes the chief task of an historian—to make the times and characters of which he speaks understood and appreciated by their own spirit and in their own light. They exemplify his want of historical justice in several instances, and prove that he comments on persons and events in a pedagogic tone, and estimates them not according to their own time and character, but to a much later period and the author's prejudices.

It cannot be the function of your correspondent to enter into the merits of this controversy, or to comment upon the copious literature which has risen out of it. Besides the above objections, there is the Borussomania of Treitschke which pervades his work from beginning to end. Prussia, it is true, as has been proved by modern events, is the standard-bearer of progress, and the heart, the backbone, and head of Germany. Without her the great Fatherland would amount to a

* *Deutsche Geschichte im neunzehnten Jahrhundert.* Von Heinrich von Treitschke. Zweiter Theil. Bis zu den Karlsbader Beschlüssen. Leipzig: S. Hirzel. Erste Auflage, 1882; Zweite Auflage, 1883. 8vo, pp. 638.

little as the United States without New England and her Puritans. Dutch traders, French adventurers, broken-down English noblemen, and German farmers were not sufficient to create a great nation, or to make it a leading power of the earth. So it has been with us, only the materials composing Germany were different. Individual autonomy and self-government based on solid learning must rule supreme in the councils of a people to make it self-reliant, progressive, and aggressive. In this respect Prussia, on the whole, has, just like Massachusetts, been faithful to her task; but it would be unjust to others to keep silent about her many shortcomings and offences. Treitschke makes the great mistake of bestowing wholesale praise on everything which is Prussian and of vilifying everything which is not Prussian. To begin with, King Frederic William III., who was a prince of rather average ability, is represented as a model regent, a hero, and a great statesman. Whatever the other German princes do (I am far from admiring them) is wrong, wicked, and nefarious; Frederic William alone is wise, noble, and praiseworthy. Now, the influence which this King exerted on the destinies of Prussia and Germany has been a very baneful one. The greatest blunder he committed—if it was to more—consisted in his promising in the hour of need a constitution to his people (May 22, 1815), and then, after having beaten Napoleon a second time, with the unselfish assistance of Prussia, instead of keeping his promise, trying every means to evade it, and finally resuscitating the old feudal corporations instead of granting a modern representation to his people. Now, there would have been no better means to consolidate the hitherto disunited members of the reconstructed monarchy, and to make the different territories and provinces feel like one and the same body, than a constitutional government with equal political duties and rights. The King's breach of his promise, and his entering into a most reactionary path afterward, called forth storms like that of 1848.

Frederic William III., it must be admitted, was, left to himself, a well-meaning man, and of much sounder judgment than is commonly believed; but he distrusted himself and had neither faith nor belief in others. As a boy he had been ill-treated, and was consequently intimidated. Thus, he lacked initiative, asked the advice of all and followed none fully, did not confide in any one, and, with advancing years, retired from contact with independent, but honest, men, and then he more easily became a victim of intriguers and "faux bons hommes." These qualities of the King furnish the key to the Prussian policy from 1816 onward, which has been characterized as that of a hundred lost golden opportunities. Thus, without being aware of it, he was a mere tool in the hands of Metternich, who was the master spirit of that epoch, and humiliated Prussia before her nobler self and the world, in order firmly to establish the Austrian hegemony over Germany and Europe. My former letters on Bismarck in Frankfort will have shown you how long and shamefully this Austrian supremacy lasted, and what enormous efforts were necessary to destroy it. Sadowa was the concluding chapter of this unhappy part of Prussian history. It was wholly the fault of the King and of his Chancellor, Prince Hardenberg, that Prussia was so deeply humiliated; but Treitschke, wherever he can, does his best to whitewash them and to conceal the real springs of action. The American scholar, however, who feels an interest in the events of that time, will find, in a faultless German style, ample information and valuable instruction in the present volume. As the author is as sound a hater as he is an upright enthusiast, it will

not be difficult to control him in rather doubtful passages.

Let me refer, in conclusion, to another mistake of Treitschke's which, although not relating to the great events of the time, will perhaps interest some of your readers who have known the man to whom I am alluding. I mean Charles Follen, one of the foremost and most intrepid abolitionists of Massachusetts, the Boston clergyman who perished in January, 1840, in the burning of the steamboat *Lexington*. Follen, as a young and enthusiastic student, had been one of the chief leaders of the "Burschenschaft," a radical association among the students which strove for political freedom and Republican institutions. At the head of the so-called "Black Brethren," he advocated the assassination of the perjured princes, was, consequently, driven out of Germany, and, by way of Switzerland and France, in the fall of 1834, went to the United States. Sand, when killing Kotzebue (1819), is said to have acted at the instigation of Follen. The victim was only a mediocre play-writer, but his death proved a great political event, as it was used by the so-called Holy Alliance and the Conservative German governments as a pretext for the introduction of the most reactionary measures. Metternich, gagging the free press and suppressing all free discussion and political societies, availed himself of the murder of Kotzebue for his plans. No more fortunate accident could have happened to him. Before Treitschke, only two contemporary writers have published their reminiscences of Follen. One of them was a dignified old gentleman, Friedrich Münch, of Marthasville, Missouri, who since 1834 had resided in that State, and died there some two years ago. Mr. Münch (whose *nom de plume* was "Far West") had been a fellow-student with Follen at Giessen, and was a great admirer of his genius. In 1872, when seventy-three years old, he published an interesting book, part of his memoirs, in which he praised Follen and defended his theories as just, those on the murder of faithless princes included. The other writer was Prof. Heinrich Leo, the late historian of Halle, who likewise had known Follen while a student, but not so intimately as Münch, and who told the same story, but tried to explain Follen's views by the excited character of the time. Out of these two statements Treitschke has concocted his sketch of Follen, by which he aims to prove that this gentleman was nothing else than a mean demagogue and the prompter of vile murderers. He describes him as a blood-thirsty and cowardly visionary, and accuses him of having been the cause of compelling the German princes to suppress free speech, free press, and free government. The exaggeration of this one-sided statement has been proved by Messrs. Baumgarten and Bulle. If any further refutation were required, it would be furnished by the later life of Follen, who was one of the most unselfish, patriotic, and noble men, and is, I trust, still esteemed as such in your country, too.

THE CAPITAL OF NUEVA LEON.

MONTEREY, March 10, 1883.

THIS city is but a single railroad stride (170 miles) south of the United States boundary at Laredo, but it lies at an infinite remove from American idioms, ideas, and idiosyncrasies. It shows Oriental or Moorish peculiarities close at hand which many have travelled to Spain or Palestine in order to see. Indeed, it is in many points more Spanish than Spain, as Lower Canada is more French than France, both having been too distant to be electrified by the earthquake shock of the French Revolution. It was founded twenty-one years before the landing on Plymouth Rock. The public square (*Plaza*

Principal) lies within a block of my hotel, the Iturbide. On the east are the cathedral and Bishop's palace; on the west the City Hall; south and north are coffee and ice-cream saloons. All the buildings are of bright colors. In the centre is a grand fountain, its central pillar buttressed by six colossal and well-cut marble dolphins. The water shoots up so high and so copiously that, whenever there is a breath of air, the spray irrigates an acre around. There are many parterres thicket with rose bushes now just budding. Walks meander, among them mazelike, and around two minor fountains as well. Encompassing this garden is a double line of trees, now mostly in full foliage; on the self-same orange bough I discover flowers and fruit full grown. Beneath every tree is a sort of stone sofa. Loungers abound, for in this latitude, 35° 40', no man ever willingly goes into a house. The splash of the fountain water always lulls to repose. The cathedral clock strikes quarters; its eight bells are never done chiming while Lent lasts; and the cries of street peddlers, with trays of nondescript notions on their heads, are no less sonorous.

The Government house on all its sides has the lower story arched after the fashion of the Doge's palace in Venice. Above the upper windows there are portraits of Mexican historical celebrities. In one of the rooms I was pointed to three muskets stacked in a glass case, and told that with these Maximilian was shot. At night-fall twenty-six men, each bearing a lantern, marched two and two into the porch. These were the night watch. Their lanterns may help them, like Diogenes, to find an honest man, but they are thought to help thieves more, by showing them what Dogterrys to shun. I am reminded of my Egyptian experience, when I was obliged to buy a lantern, as the Cairo landlord declared that the orders of the watch were to lie in ambush and shoot at every lanternless man they espied abroad in the nocturnal streets.

All Monterey is massively built, preeminently the cathedral. Its roof is like that of a bomb-proof, and has doubtless served as a battery on which to plant cannon. In front it has various carvings and five niches for statues of saints. The bell-ropes are tied to the clappers, and the bells are all rung without moving, except one, which has no rope at all, but is rung by being whirled over and over. From the cathedral roof I see mountain ranges jagged with just such saw-teeth as led the mediæval Spaniards to call them sierras. One notch toward the east, dilly named a saddle, is watched with special interest at a certain season, because the sun annually rises at that very point for a few days, as if eager, the natives say, to catch a view of paradisaical Monterey as early as possible. On the west, above two white churches on hills which serve for calvaries, or goals of pilgrimage, there towers a mountain cloven at top like a mitre, and accordingly so named.

The Iturbide Hotel was built for a convent, and is very much like the Hotel Dimitri, in Damascus. Its entrance front has no window, and few of its rooms have any, except transoms over their doors. Mine has a window opening on a side street, and fortified with iron bars only three inches apart, but projecting nine inches from the wall, like those in Florence, the *inghiacchiato* invented by Michael Angelo. Thus I have a view up and down the street. But I am advised to leave nothing in my apartment lying around loose, as passers-by carry hooks which they throw in between the bars, and fish out whatever they can grapple at the end of their line. Of course my window has no glass and no sash in which to set any. Indeed, I am persuaded that the panes in the city are fewer than the houses. In many cases the same hole serves

both for door and window. The only store where I observed any glass hangs up for a sign the words, "Crystal Palace." The British window tax would have no terrors here. My walls—both the outer and inner—are twenty-seven inches thick. The ceiling is at least sixteen feet high, and is painted as if formed with a lattice of cane, showing a dark thatch through the diamond interstices. This is a reminiscence of the era when all roofs were made of cane and thatch, as those of the suburban peasantry here are to this day. The rooms have all their doors opening into an arcaded porch running round the four sides of a court, which is a garden of state-ly bananas and pomegranates, the latter now disclosing their coral red blossoms. In the centre is a vine-clad bamboo bower. On one side of the flat roof there is a series of upper-story rooms, and all around there is a pleasant promenade at morning and evening. No roof with a ridge-pole is visible, save at the railroad station. A few gigantic dagger-trees, or palmettos, and a pecan with a bamboo hut among its branches, are among the stock sights in the outlook. My own quarters have seemed worthy of these details because, with slight variations, they represent the whole city.

The manifest destiny of the Montereyans is either to vanish away as the American Indians and the old Californians have vanished, leaving room for the survival of the fittest, or on the other hand to become Americanized. I fear the former alternative will be their doom in the near future, and yet would gladly view their prospects more hopefully. It was pleasant to find a public library open every day, and free to all comers, established last year, and close to the chief place of concourse. It consists of only eighty-nine short shelves of books, though they are of fair quality, and more have been ordered. The worst sign is that I can count on the fingers of one hand all the readers I have seen there. By way of contrast, I see loungers standing two and two at every corner and door, wrapped in shawls which answer for vests, coats, cloaks, and, I suppose, beds as well, all day doing nothing and seeking nothing to do. At the most they smoke cigarettes, and, as some one has said, what hope can we have for the future of a people who in three centuries have been able to devise no better mode than that of getting the good out of tobacco? Monterey women almost equal the men in idly gazing along the streets, but they all stand behind the window bars, like mice in a wire mouse-trap. A foreigner on first passing through the streets naturally asked, "Are the ladies here all in jail?" Again, there are public schools; but the throng of children playing around in school-hours betray small attendance. There is also a Presbyterian Mission, and I have attended the Sunday service. All told, there were less than thirty in the auditorium: two American preachers, two Mexican lay exhorters, two female teachers from Iowa, about six Mexican men and women, and the rest children. Behold the result of ten years' work. How much for how little!

The Government, while Republican in name, is in fact a military aristocracy. The soldiers here, largely convicts, are estimated at fifteen hundred. A part of their business of late has been to shoot down at sight the Mexicans caught meddling with the railroad. Some of the natives are such thieves that they tear up the track to get spikes; others block the track through anti-American passion. When I visited the Bishop's palace on the suburban hill bombarded by Bragg, I found it garrisoned by 200 artillerymen. It seemed at first a hopeful sign that, as the commandant led me through the quarters, he showed me the telephone just set up there as a *buena cosa Americana*, and clearly viewed it as

a jewel. But on second thought I felt that it was nothing less than a stern military necessity which had induced the adoption even of this Yankee notion.

The darkest sign in the Mexican as in the Irish horoscope is satisfaction with a low plane of living. The International Railroad hired multitudes of Mexican laborers for its construction. It paid them six or eight shillings a day, while before their wages were no more than three. Yet these laborers bought no better food or clothing than before, made no more provision for their wives and children, but wasted their wage increment well-nigh to a man in drunkenness and gambling, or bull-fights—for that venerable Spanish sabbatical institution still flourishes here at its best and fullest.

My letter is already too long, and still I have not alluded to the strangest feature of this place to Northern eyes—namely, the clearness of the air, such as that which made me, as I stood on the Mount of Olives, think the Dead Sea within an hour's walk, though I found it a day's ride. Among the strange aerial phenomena here I class the foot hills standing out so prominently that you think you can see round their corners and into the interspaces between them and the secondary ranges. The most distant peaks, too, seem pressing forward to peep over the shoulders of those nearer. Everywhere the lights and shades contrast no less than those of electric illuminators. On the whole, the atmospheric brilliancy surpasses whatever is known in the North as much as our Northern sky surpasses the London fogs, where men are forever doubtful whether their celestial luminary is the sun or the moon.

J. D. B.

Correspondence.

PROHIBITION AND SOPHISTRY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In an editorial comment on a letter written in defence of prohibition in Iowa, which appeared in No. 921 of the *Nation*, occurs this sentence: "The tendency to be uncandid and sophistical has always been a feature of the temperance agitation."

Do you not in this ascribe to one side of a particular agitation something which is an inseparable accompaniment to all agitation and to both sides of all agitations, and must necessarily be so, so long as the human mind continues to be liable to the prejudice of bias or to the falsities of bad logic? Neither pro-slavery nor anti-slavery, protection nor free trade, machine politics nor civil-service reform, has been free from the advocacy of uncandid and sophistical reasoning. And as for anti-prohibition, I would merely invite your attention to the following extracts from the communication which immediately followed the one above noticed, and which, passing as it did without editorial comment, appears to have excited no especial editorial disfavor:

"It must be universally conceded that if men were of their own volition to abstain entirely from the use of intoxicating liquor as a beverage, intemperance, with all the wretchedness, poverty, and crime it entails, would be completely eradicated. . . . The friends of prohibition declare that mere moral restraint has been found totally inadequate to govern and subdue the passions and appetites of men. This declaration . . . admits the inefficiency and futility of moral influence. It is tantamount to an assertion that the precepts and truths which are constantly inculcated in every civilized nation by the pulpit, the press, and the school are utterly destitute of practical effect. . . . So long as there is a demand for intoxicating beverages there will be a supply of them. The one chief defect of the prohibition plan is that it is

directed against only the supply. . . . Large quantities of liquor are still sold and consumed in Maine, and the most watchful vigilance of the authorities is unable to completely suppress the illicit traffic."

Is there no lack of candor, no sophistry here? I believe it was Archimedes who said, "Give me a fulcrum, and I will move the world"! I will do better than this. Grant me such a stupendous "if" as the one contained in the first clause above quoted, and I will move the universe. This admirable discovery of a perfect method for the eradication of all woe would be equally true written thus: "If men were, *through prohibition*, to abstain entirely," etc. The writer has begged the question, and taken his own conclusion for granted from the outset.

Further, it appears either that prohibition must have many friends, or else some others than its friends have found "mere moral restraint inadequate to govern the passions of men"—else, whence our whole fabric of penal law? Are all these enactments tantamount to so many assertions that pulpit, press, and school are destitute of effect?

Then, as to supply and demand. Where should we strike an evil, if not at its source? Does liquor develop the appetite, the want, the demand, or does the untainted nature crave alcoholic stimulation so imperatively that it becomes tyranny for law to say, "This appetite must be suppressed as one detrimental to the general welfare, as one which in practice has been found to destroy a frightful proportion of those who gratify it, to work untold misery to innocent victims, and to double the amount of crime and the consequent necessity for courts and jails"?

It is only very partially true that the demand for liquor is what develops the supply. It is the excessive supply, pandering and appealing to the vices of men, that maintains and develops the demand. What demand produced the Northern Pacific Railroad? It was not the demand for transportation. The railroad had first to go and, by creating facilities, induce people to follow after it and avail themselves of those facilities. The railroad created a demand which had not previously existed. What produced the railroad was the demand for new fields of profitable investment by capital that foresaw the possibility of persuading people to go and make use of temptingly-displayed opportunities.

As to the exceedingly candid objection to the "regulation of private conduct," do anti-prohibitionists see any impropriety in the suppression of the trade in toy-pistols, or in obscene literature, or of the opium trade in China? Oh, no! but opium in China is so very different from alcohol in the United States! One class, who advocate free liquor, but punishment for drunkenness, would, if consistent, allow "the deadly toy-pistol" to be exposed for sale in every toy and candy store, and would then inflict what punishment the swift oncoming lockjaw left time for, upon every child that got wounded with one. They would have us leave the gilded temptation untouched, and stand ready with police, prison, and halter to deal with those who find themselves, when once lured in, too weak to struggle free from the every where-present toils.

Finally, I ask attention to the last of the quoted clauses. Alas for the writer! He proves altogether too much. The same is true, to the letter, of counterfeit coin, smuggled goods, and of the "illicit" practices of gambling, swindling, stealing, murdering, and many others. But somehow this admitted fact has not led us to do away with our laws and our "watchful vigilance" against these things, and to trust wholly to the powerful influence of the pulpit, the press, and the school to morally persuade men to be-

have themselves, and regulate their private actions in accordance with public welfare. "These things [laws and penalties] ought ye to have done, and not to leave the other [moral suasion] undone." HENRY G. REYNOLDS.
OLD MISSION, MICH.

[The letter in question we thought valuable because it called attention to the fact that moral suasion has been more successful than anything else in preventing excess. In most fields of consumption or activity, men are kept moderate by advice and argument, or by observation of the effects of over-indulgence. Even in the matter of drinking, these agencies have done a great deal among certain classes, both in this country and in England. It is very useful, we think, to keep prohibitionists in mind of this, because their tendency is to forget it. They forget it because in their zeal they forget that it is against excess they are fighting. They advocate prohibition not because they hold that all use of alcoholic drinks is wrong, but because they hold that it is only by total abstinence that excess can be prevented. Having forgotten this, they readily fall into the fallacy of considering criminal all use of anything which may be abused, and then indulge in the preposterous fallacy of putting wine-drinking in the same category with counterfeiting, gambling, and fornication. As the least counterfeiting or gambling or unchastity is wrong and ought to be punished, they declare that the least wine-selling is wrong and ought to be punished. Having got as far as this, of course all the rest is easy, and they ask, with exultant absurdity, why you complain of the inefficiency of the liquor laws any more than of the inefficiency of the counterfeiting, gambling, and fornication laws. But they cannot maintain that a practice in which the best men of the human race have indulged in all ages is wrong even in moderation, any more than they can maintain that it is no harm to counterfeit or gamble or fornicate a little. —ED. NATION.]

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is difficult for us always to avoid the sins we find it easy to charge upon others. We are all prone to slip; and when a writer starts out with a flourish to impute to some luckless wight, who may have had the misfortune to differ from him on a question of more or less importance, an inaccuracy of statement or a slovenliness of argument, I invariably follow him with trembling, for it is ten to one that his own discourse will furnish illustration of the very faults he castigates.

A good example of this tendency may be seen in No. 924 of your journal, where, with dignified complacency, the communication of Sylvan Drey accuses Mr. Ernst Hofer of "sophistry." The writer seems to have confused in an astonishing manner the provinces of constitutional and statutory law. It appears never to have occurred to him that many things are beyond the power of the legislature which yet the people may control. There is no force in saying that what has not been committed to the legislature at all is "not within legislative competency." But to say that the body politic has no power by police regulation to prohibit any traffic that the body politic deems subversive of its order, detrimental to its prosperity, inimical to its happiness, and injurious to its morals, is to

place one's self in ridiculous opposition not only to a long line of judicial opinions, but even to the specific concessions of the most punctilious publicists that have championed the cause of alleged "personal liberty." Mr. Drey should bear in mind that there is a marvellous distance between "legislative competency" and the "right of a State." C. A. TOWNE.

LANSING, MICH., March 19, 1883.

OREGON AND THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The note from President Walker with the above heading has received considerable attention. The subject is one of no small consequence to the student of history. Undoubtedly the publication of the historical map in the "Statistical Atlas," enlarged from Mr. Stocking's map in the census of 1870, created considerable surprise in the minds of many students of history, since there is no good ground for including Oregon as a part of the "Louisiana Purchase." General Walker says in his note: "The Oregon question" was not one which there had ever been occasion for me specially to investigate." It would, perhaps, have been fortunate if an investigation had preceded the publication of the "Historical Map."

In 1824, our Minister to England, Mr. Rush, based our claim to Oregon, first, upon "the proper claim of the United States by discovery and settlement; and secondly, as now standing in the place of Spain, and holding in their hands her title" (that is, by the Florida treaty). Mr. Rush did not even mention the Louisiana purchase. But General Walker quotes (from memory) Mr. Gallatin. Mr. Gallatin and Mr. Rush carried on negotiations upon this subject with Great Britain in 1818, before our purchase of Florida, and before Spain had quit-claimed to us her right to Oregon. At that time we had never claimed that our title to Oregon was perfect. Messrs. Gallatin and Rush reported to our Government that they "did not assert that the United States had a perfect right to that country, but insisted that their claim was at least good against Great Britain."*

In 1845 Mr. Buchanan asserted that our claim to the country was perfect. He said: "Our own American title to the extent of the valley of the Columbia, resting as it does on discovery, exploration, and possession—a possession acknowledged by a most solemn act by Great Britain herself—is a sufficient assurance against all mankind, whilst our superadded title derived from Spain extends our exclusive rights over the whole territory in dispute against Great Britain."†

The following authorities, among many others, may be quoted as against the view that Oregon was a part of the Louisiana purchase: (1) The French Government, (2) the British Government, (3) the Spanish Government, (4) the United States Government, (5) Mr. Jefferson, (6) Mr. Gallatin, (7) Mr. Rush, (8) Mr. Buchanan, (9) Mr. Caleb Cushing, (10) Mr. Greenhow, (11) Mr. Clay, (12) Mr. Benton, (13) Mr. John Quincy Adams, (14, 15, 16) three distinguished English authors upon the subject—Travers Twiss, Thomas Falconer, and John Dunn, and lastly (17) M. Marbois. As to M. Marbois's opinion, a quotation somewhat at length will surely settle the question. After discussing freely with the American ambassadors the difficulties attending a definite statement of western and northern boundaries, he said to them:

* Twelfth conference between the plenipotentiaries, June 26, 1824, as annexed to the President's Message to Congress, January 31, 1826.

† Sir Travers Twiss, "The Oregon Question Examined," p. 202.

‡ Letter of Mr. Buchanan, July 12, 1845.

"Is it not better for the United States to abide by a general stipulation, and, since these territories are still at this day, for the most part, in the possession of the Indians, await future arrangements, or leave the matter for the treaty stipulations that the United States may make with them and Spain?" In granting Canada to the English, at the peace of 1763, we only extended the cession to the country that we possessed. It is, however, as a consequence of that treaty that England has occupied territory to the west as far as the great Northern Ocean. "It is," he adds, "in fact important not to introduce ambiguous clauses into treaties; however, the American plenipotentiaries made no more objections, and if, in appearing to be resigned to these general terms through necessity, they considered them really preferable to more precise stipulations, it must be admitted that the event has justified their foresight. The shores of the Western Ocean were certainly not included in the cession, but the United States are already established there."

This quotation is from Marbois's "History of Louisiana," translated "by an American citizen," and published in Philadelphia, by Carey & Lea, in 1830, pp. 285 and 286. This explains fully what is meant by General Walker's quotation: "Accroissement des Etats-Unis par le traité et PAR SES EFFETS."

WILLIAM A. MOWRY.

PROVIDENCE, March 20, 1883.

ARMS CARRYING AND MURDER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There seems to be an assumption running through your Southern correspondents' letters on the subject of homicide that carrying of arms necessarily develops that species of brutality (begging pardon of the brutes). It is not necessarily so. In Montenegro, where civilization is almost in its patriarchal state and law scarcely crystallized, every man from twelve or fourteen to old age goes armed with knife and pistols, and where the gravest degradation which can be inflicted on a man by authority is to deprive him of his arms (equivalent to disfranchising him with us), personal conflicts and hot-blooded murders are very rare, so much so that during nearly three years that I was in the country, most of which time was spent with the army, I never saw a personal rencontre, and only heard of one murder of the kind so popular in our Southern States. Yet the sense of honor is quite as fine as with our Southern chivalry, and the duel is in extreme cases permitted, but only by the direct assent of the Prince and a kind of legal settlement with due formalities. I remember one day that when the Prince had decorated a man for an act of personal daring, one of his neighbors approached the former and said that he thought that he was as brave and as deserving the medal as the other. "Go and say to him," replied the Prince, "that you are a braver man than he, and I will give you the medal." This is equivalent to a challenge, and must have been followed by a duel, and the man declined the test; not because he was afraid, but because there was no provocation. And the Prince knew his man so well that he chose this as the simplest way of refusing the demand for a decoration perhaps not earned.

The immunity from acts of violence is in curious contrast to the condition of the adjoining Austrian provinces inhabited by the same race, where murder, the vendetta, and general lawlessness cannot be repressed even by Austrian military rigor. The reason why in Montenegro murder is so rare is that the law is practically inexorable, and certain to fall on him who is the author of an unjustifiable homicide. The value of the life of a man is too great to be left to the chances of passion, and he who provokes wantonly a rencontre in which his adversary is killed is treated as a murderer. Every man in the

community knows that escape from justice for any crime of violence is possible only by instant self exile; he has no wish to spend the remainder of his life in that state, and so learns to restrain his passion and keep his revolver in his belt. If public opinion in the South could be educated up to the Montenegrin point, it would recognize every man who goes about to provoke a quarrel as a ruffian and bravo, and every weaker one who condones these savageries as an imbecile and unfit to exercise the duties of a citizen, and then a recognition of law would become possible. The men of the South who have not the courage to hold up their heads and speak boldly against the ruffianism in their midst are primarily responsible for a state of things which does more to damage the reputation of our country than even repudiation. I remember once being on ship-board with a Dalmatian captain who traded all over the world, and who preferred to sail to any port rather than one of the United States of America. His reason was that he believed, and had always heard, that in all the streets of the American cities there was the imminent danger of a pistol affair on any pretext. It is nonsense to talk of the patriotism of men who will not, for the honor of their country, encounter the scowls or insults of the braves of their community by daring to raise their voices against barbarisms which no country can tolerate and be called civilized.

W. J. STILLMAN.

FLORENCE, March 9, 1883.

UNCUT EDGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you permit one of your subscribers to offer a protest against an abuse of the critic's and student's time and patience which is getting a little too heavy to bear?

In the time of poor Queen Anne there was a heavy tax on glass, and very little sunlight in Great Britain, so nobody felt greatly aggrieved that windows were small and window-panes smaller. Now that the æsthetic craze induces the fashionable public to revert to a fashion which was simply a necessity when it originated, it is found convenient to forget the original "why" and "wherefore." A very few years ago the reading public of the United States congratulated themselves that the invention of a certain machine made it possible to cut the leaves of all books, papers, and magazines without increasing their cost. But the vanity of mankind and the æsthetic craze have already united to demonstrate that this congratulation is premature. Scarce a book has come from the press this year that does not need to be painfully cut leaf by leaf; and the time so employed must be subtracted from that bestowed on the reading by every critic.

In good Queen Anne's time, it was as little to be objected to as the small panes of glass. Her Majesty could not spell, and her subjects did not read. The aristocratic class who satisfied their literary longings by collecting libraries, rebound the issues of the press for their own shelves, as their descendants still do. But in the United States of America it is the *people*, not the aristocrats, who read; and the people are active artisans or merchants, who have no time to spare, and, like the critic, grudge every second to the paper-knife. Let me speak for myself. I am too conscientious to review with a paper-knife or my fingers' ends; and this winter, from this cause alone, I have found it impossible to keep up with my work. Let publishers understand that it will never pay in this country to provide for the wants of the book-fancier alone.

Yours very truly,

CAROLINE H. DALL.

WASHINGTON, D. C., March 21, 1883.

Notes.

IRVING'S centenary falling this year, G. P. Putnam's Sons have in preparation a memorial edition of Mr. Pierre M. Irving's 'Life and Letters' of his uncle. It will be of quarto size, and elegantly manufactured in every respect, with three specially engraved portraits (in addition to many others heretofore published), namely, of Washington Irving at twenty-one, from a recently discovered miniature; of Matilda Hoffman, his fiancée, and of the late George P. Putnam. The three volumes will appear during the months of April and May, and but 300 copies will be printed.

To the uniform edition of Dr. O. W. Holmes's works, now being published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., will be added 'Medical Essays' and 'Pages from an Old Volume of Life,' which combine various essays, professional and metaphysical, already published under other titles, with some quite new ones.

Lee & Shepard will issue next month a volume of poems by the late Marc Cook, known to magazine readers by his hopeful article on "The Adirondack Cure" for the disease to which he succumbed last October. As a verse-writer, he was accustomed to use the *nom de plume* of "Vandyke Brown." One of his poems, "Nothing New Under the Sun," was included by Mr. Dana in the latest edition of his 'Household Book of Poetry.'

Besides a new edition of the popular novel, 'Mr. Isaacs,' Macmillan & Co. announce for immediate publication a new edition of Dr. Martineau's 'Study of Spinoza' and a new translation of 'Spinoza's Ethics,' made by Mr. Hale White, with the advice and assistance of Mr. J. Hutchinson Sterling, of Edinburgh. A one-volume edition of Miss Yonge's new story, 'Stray Pearls,' and a new novel under the title of 'The Story of Melicent,' by Fayr Madoc, are also just ready.

E. P. Dutton & Co. announce for publication, by arrangement with the London publishers, Rosmini's 'Five Wounds of the Church,' by Canon Liddon; and a revised edition of Blunt's Annotated Prayer-Book, with American preface.

Messrs. Sweet & Knox, editors of *Texas Siftings*, will publish in the form of a subscription-book, through S. S. Scranton & Co., Hartford, Conn., their serial narrative, 'Through Texas on a Mexican Mustang,' begun in their paper last May.

Dr. Dix's much-criticised Lenten 'Lectures on the Calling of a Christian Woman' have been gathered into a volume, and cheaply yet tastefully published by D. Appleton & Co.

Harper & Bros. have added to their Franklin Square Library 'The Wreck of the *Grosvenor*,' and Mr. S. S. Cox's 'Why We Laugh.'

'The Statesman's Year Book' rounds its twentieth year in the publication for 1883 (Macmillan). Its founder, however, the late Frederick Martin, was obliged to relinquish the editorship in December last, and died near the close of the following month. His successor, Mr. J. Scott Keltie, assumes his new task with modesty, and desires corrections and suggestions. The modifications observable in this important annual are as usual extensive. Brazil is a prominent example. The four lines on p. 583 concerning the school census of the United States contain at least three errors, one very serious. The number of schools in 1880 is represented by a figure retained from the last edition (where it was attributed to the census of 1870), and is nearly twice too small—141,629 in place of 225,880. The number of teachers, on the other hand, is considerably overrated; the total "enrolment" of school-

children falls short by 265,000 of the total attendance reported by the census. The list of non-official publications relating to this country is susceptible of improvement.

Mr. Christern sends us Louis Figuier's 'L'Année Scientifique et Industrielle' for 1882 (26th year). Under "Arts of Construction" we read among other things of the plans for making Paris a seaport by canal or by widening and deepening the Seine, and of the new French railroad enterprises on the upper Senegal; under "Public Hygiene" is given a review of the progress of cremation, the world over, Italy being foremost among Christian nations; under "Medicine and Physiology" the details of Gambetta's illness and death, and the Paris census for 1881, find a place. The population of that city has grown from 547,700 in 1801 to 2,225,992 in the year first named. The census of France for 1881 by departments is subjoined, together with an interesting discussion of the movement of population. "Speaking generally, the deaths exceed the births in the cities which may be regarded as centres of industry, pleasure, and diverse passions, and the births exceed the deaths in the country districts, which are centres of reproduction. Nevertheless, the cities are populated while the country districts are depopulated." Under "Agriculture" we are told that it is already settled that the planting of American vines will be the salvation of France, and that the number of available varieties is rather scanty. The necrology of this instructive volume is as usual full and valuable.

Submarine telephoning forms one of the sections in the annual just noticed, the two experiments described being between ship and shore, but neither being satisfactory. We think there can be little doubt that recent improvements of instrument and wire in this country point to a time when by Atlantic cable the Old World can readily converse with the New. Till that day arrives Americans have hardly more than a curious interest in the brochure issued by Paul Dupont, Paris, for the Compagnie Internationale des Téléphones, entitled 'Situation des Réseaux Téléphoniques,' or 'Established Telephonic Networks.' A short introduction describes the various conditions of the telephonic system in different countries—according as it is free or more or less under the control of the state—and then follow tables for the globe and for its several parts, showing for the world at large 363 towns and 78,808 subscribers in communication. The numbers for America, chiefly the United States (126 towns, 47,185 subscribers) seem to us too small, but the pamphlet enumerates all the companies who have furnished the desired particulars, and who probably cover the major part of the field. The accompanying statistics show subscription fees and charter privileges, town by town and company by company. The telephone has found its way to Honolulu and the principal cities of Australia.

M. Jules Lévy is republishing in his *Français* (Cambridge, Mass.) a pamphlet on the Madagascar question, which appeared last year in Paris, from the pen of J. Brenier. Timeliness also belongs to the 'Concise Grammar of the Malagasy Language,' by G. W. Parker, just added to Trübner's "Collection of Simplified Grammars." This language possesses an exceptional interest. It was made a written tongue by British missionaries, has furnished a translation of the Bible, and in sundry ways shows the influence of the Arabs, the French, and the English. Its literature proper, as we indicated last week in our notice of the *Folk-Lore Journal*, well repays study.

J. B. Lippincott & Co. are the American agents of the new Tory monthly, the *National Review*. The first (March) number has a well-

mixed table of contents, and is handsomely printed.

Mr. Arthur B. Turnure, 132 Nassau Street, has begun publication of a monthly eight-page quarto, called the *Art Age*. Its rubricated initials, column rules and dashes, and its elegant typography, symbolize the object of this periodical, which is, if we understand the editor's "General Argument," to glorify the products of our best American presses. As we have a specimen page from Abbey's Herrick, it is probable that borrowed illustrations will continue to be a marked feature of the *Art Age*. The scheme is not wholly uncritical, and is partly literary.

Mr. Foster's *Monthly Reference Lists* for March has for its two topics Richard Wagner and the Georgia Sesqui centennial (F. W. Leyboldt).

Drs. J. M. Charcot and P. Richer contribute to the January number of the quarterly *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease* (Putnam's) a very instructive article showing the cerebral connection between physiognomy and gesture. This is done by means of experiments on a cataleptic patient, the appropriate gesture following the localized faradization of the facial muscles to express astonishment, anger, mirth, etc. Four excellent photographs taken under these conditions complete the demonstration. A portrait of the late Dr. Geo. M. Beard accompanies this number of the *Journal*.

We have received the eleventh annual report of the Fairmount Park Art Association (Philadelphia), and the 'Visitors' Guide to the Collection of Birds in the American Museum of Natural History' (Central Park). Both these pamphlets have a more than local interest, for each is a record of and an incentive to public spirit.

President Barnard's 'Perpetual Calendar' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) is a very simple contrivance, though less convenient than similar calendars for limited periods, because when in use the year at which it is set is not so obvious. We think, too, that the explanation on the back should give illustrative examples.

Prof. Birbaum, of the Ladies' High School in Heidelberg, has put forth a compendious 'History of the English Language and Literature' (New York: Westermann), one chapter of which, on 'The North American Literature,' we have found sufficiently amusing. The author's young ladies are to be congratulated on the exclusive information contained in the following passage, which concludes an account of the establishment of the republic under Washington: "Yet one stain should disfigure this splendid national edifice—the execrable slave trade. Owing to the strenuous efforts of William Wilberforce, it was finally abolished in 1807 (Abolition Act of Slavery), although the complete emancipation of slaves was only carried out in 1833." A little later we read, under the head of "Dramatic Poetry": "After him [George H. Boker] the names of Warner, *Gilded Age*, and William D. Howells, an imitator of French plays, stand out the first." The climax is capped when it is stated, of Dr. Holmes, that "of his numerous poems [sic] may be mentioned *Bread and Newspaper*, *My Hunt after the Captain*, *Sun Painting* and *Sun Sculpture*, and *Doings of the Sun-beam*!"

We have already noticed (*Nation*, No. 893) the first parts of the 'Handbuch der theologischen Wissenschaften,' edited by Dr. Otto Zöckler (New York: Westermann). The third half-volume is now before us, issued designedly out of order, since it is the beginning of Vol. III. The other half, with the whole of Vol. II., is promised in the course of the year.

An "Allgemeines historisches Porträtwerk," to be issued by Fr. Bruckmann in Munich, will

form a good accompaniment to R. Gottschall's "Der neue Plutarch." Six hundred phototyped portraits of persons of all races and classes since 1300 are to be issued with some biographical data. There will be 12 series—viz., 1, 2, Princes and Popes; 3, 4, Statesmen and Warriors; 5, 6, German Poets; 7, Non-German Poets; 8, Artists; 9, Musicians; 10, Learned Men and Reformers; 11, Women; 12, Various.

In the Note upon Wordsworth in our last week's issue, a slip of the pen gave his sister the name of "Mary" instead of Dorothy.

—The *Atlantic* contains the first act of a dramatization of "Daisy Miller" by Mr. James. There are to be three acts, and the story in its dramatic form will be, of course, more elaborate than the original sketch. It would be premature to pronounce an opinion upon its dramatic merits in its present uncompleted state, but the experiment will be watched with interest, for many reasons—among others because it will, if successful, enrich the somewhat poorly provided American theatre with two new types in Daisy and Randolph C. Miller. In the first instalment there is very little action, but the dialogue is bright, and in the hands of really competent actors, as we know from so many of Roberts's plays, dialogue may be made to take the place of action. Mr. Warner has an essay on "Modern Fiction," in which he makes a protest against the novel of analysis and introspection, and hints that "most of us" are "ready for a more ideal—that is to say, a more artistic—view of our performances in this bright and pathetic world." The names of Cooper, Scott, and Lever suggest themselves at once as illustrations of the kind of novel that idealizes life, and touches it with poetry, and makes it seem like what it is at its best moments. Mr. Warner reminds us of Hawthorne, too, as a proof that, out of the materials afforded by American life, the imagination may weave romances of the first rank. He may also be cited to show that there is no necessary antagonism between introspection or analysis and idealism. It is, however, almost impossible to conceive of the work of any of the novelists we have named being done over again, and Mr. Warner himself does not suggest any way in which we can hope to escape from the atmosphere of realism which is the peculiar characteristic of modern art and modern life in so many directions. In an article on the "Bacon-Shakespeare Craze," Mr. R. G. White makes mince-meat of Mrs. Pott's recent publication, and goes so far as to express the opinion that it is not of the least consequence in the world whether "Hamlet," "Lear," and "Othello" were written by Francis Bacon, William Shakspeare, or John Smith, "so they were written by an Englishman in London, between the years 1590 and 1610." In other words, the value of the plays is just as great no matter who wrote them. This is very true; but though the plays, as such, would remain, our ideas of Bacon would be materially affected by finding that the "wisest, brightest, meanest of mankind" was the greatest dramatist the race has produced. His life would have to be entirely rewritten, and the discovery would be made the basis of many a novel and important literary theory. In this way Mrs. Pott's discovery would, if there was any truth in it, be a highly important revelation.

—The *Century* for April contains the concluding chapters of Mrs. Burnett's "Through One Administration," a tale which may be regarded as the latest attempt at producing the typical American novel. We shall defer any discussion of the plot as a whole until the story appears as a book. The work may be commended to the foreign critic of American fiction and manners. Unless we are greatly mistaken, it will puzzle

him a good deal. It should be studied by him in connection with 'Democracy,' a novel which has, however, a considerably more European flavor. What is to be said of the country which produces such books as these? What of its social aims and ideals? What of its political system? What of its intersexual code? A good deal of solid work is cut out for the critic in "Through One Administration." Anglers will be interested in an article on the "Primitive Fish hook," by Baret Phillips, who traces its development from the palæolithic fish gorge to the perfected hook of to-day. Mr. Stedman has a critical essay on Emerson, which is "appreciative," but occasionally bewildering. "His philosophical method," says Mr. Stedman gravely, "bears to the inductive or empirical a relation similar to that between the poetry of self-expression and the poetry of æsthetic creation—a relation of the subjective to the objective." This is not a very clear distinction. Mr. Stedman appears to be really of opinion that Emerson had no philosophical system at all, but took whatever he needed of philosophy where he found it: from Plato, from Aristotle, from Swedenborg, from Fenelon, from Montaigne, from Marcus Aurelius, or from the last Brown, Jones, or Robinson who had turned up as the "coming man" at Concord, Mass. As to this, there can be no dissent; still, if he had no philosophical system at all, what has the distinction between the poetry of self-expression and that of æsthetic creation to do with the explanation of his "philosophical method"? The former kind, of course, often is the more "spontaneous," since it has its birth in the human need for utterance. It is the cry of adolescence and femininity, the resource of sensitive natures, in which emotion outvies the sense of external beauty and power. It was the voice of Shakspeare's youth, nor was it ever quieted throughout the restless careers of Byron, Heine, and De Musset. These are very queer associates for Emerson, whether we regard him as a poet or a "seer," yet, to clinch the matter, Mr. Stedman adds, "as with the subjective poets, so with many of the transcendental acolytes." The secret of Emerson's influence will, we venture to predict, as time goes on be found to have consisted largely in the fact that he opened the long-closed doors of New England to what we now call "culture," and preached to a generation which was habituated to preaching of a very different sort, and longing for a freer and healthier life, the worship of the true, the beautiful, and the good. It was not a system of philosophy that he preached. New England was dried up with systematic teaching. His creed was the negation of creeds, a protest against systems. In so far he was "subjective," but the stern necessity of his "environment" made it impossible for him to get along without a systematic nomenclature, and the term transcendental was invented to meet this local peculiarity.

—Lippincott's for April contains an unusual number of "solid" articles. Mr. E. V. Smalley contributes a good deal of information on the subject of "The German Element in the United States"; Mr. Philip G. Hubert, jr., writes on Wagner; and "L. D." criticises Mr. Freeman's recent remarks on "American Speech." "L. D." by no means agrees with those of Mr. Freeman's critics in this country who thought that the historian's views of our way of using English were, considering the shortness of his visit here, just and accurate enough. On the contrary, he undertakes to show a number of instances in which Mr. Freeman has made blunders, and, further, that his own speech is by no means absolutely correct, but rather slipshod and slovenly. What, for example, are we to think of a critic who not only

is frivolous enough to suggest that we say "on board" a train of cars because our cars suggest to the mind the "cabin of a steamer," but has the audacity to write, in defiance of Lindley Murray, of the American "car," that "it is quite unlike the special meaning attached to a carriage"? A car unlike a special meaning! Shall we submit to criticism from such a source? Mr. Freeman, speaking of the habit of calling New York a "metropolis," thinks that it is not easy to guess in what sense the word is used, "as it can hardly be because it is the seat of a Roman Catholic Archbishopric." Did Mr. Freeman, inquires "L. D.," ever try to guess why a certain line of railway in London is called "Metropolitan"? The "Climate Cure" is discussed sceptically by Mr. Frank D. Y. Carpenter, who thinks that doctors, consumptive invalids, and hotel-keepers are in a conspiracy to represent certain places as "sanitariums," when the truth is that nobody knows whether they kill or cure. Florida, says Mr. Carpenter, ought to be called Euthanasia; Santa Barbara is becoming noted for the prosperity of its undertakers, etc. His advice is to get the nearest dry, pure air that can be had, and abandon all idea that a long journey in search of a new climate is necessary. Massachusetts physicians, we believe, have acted on this view of the matter, and sent consumptives from Boston about a couple of hours inland to the high country about Worcester.

—Harper's opens with a readable article on "English Farmers," by Mrs. Phoebe Earle Gibbons, in which the writer draws a rather neat sketch of the ordinary English farm interior—so different from anything that could be found in this country. Mrs. Ford, the farmer's wife, reminds the reader a little of some of the characters in George Eliot's novels. She has heard of America, but having heard also of Australia, is apt to confound the two. She inquires of Mrs. Gibbons what means of education we have in the United States; and on learning that means exist, she says that she "thought not"; but adds reflectively that "perhaps it was Australia of which she heard this." With reference to the depression in farming she thinks the Irish troubles are "doing us good." Speaking of American cheese, it occurs to Mrs. Ford "how easily we might poison them" with this article of export—a suggestion which throws a side light upon the popular feeling in Germany as to the American pig, lately utilized in the interest of protection. Mrs. Ford has an old uncle and aunt, and Mrs. Gibbons's laughing and talking lead her to suggest a visit to the old people, on the ground of their interest in America, not as the land of freedom, but as the home of "funny things." There is plenty of American history in the magazine, and it looks as if the supply would not soon give out, for Mr. George Ticknor Curtis furnishes an illustrated article on "The Treaty of Peace and Independence," bearing the ominous number which indicates that others are to follow, and Mr. T. W. Higginson has an account of the Jamestown settlement and other related matters. Mr. Boughton's instalment of "Artist Strolls in Holland" contains a number of charming pictures. The frontispiece of the magazine is a portrait of Irving, about whom Mr. Curtis has a few pleasant words to say in the "Easy Chair," suggested by his approaching centenary. As Mr. Curtis says, Irving's position in literature is "assured"; but, unless we are mistaken, there is a good deal of doubt just now as to its exact nature and magnitude. Was he a great writer, or are his style and matter a little too literary and imitative? Was even his humor original? In another hundred years the world will have made up its mind on these points.

—The address on mental discipline recently delivered by Professor Huxley before the Liver-

pool Institute clearly defines what, in the estimate of that scientist, ought to constitute the groundwork and body of a substantial English education. Apart from its numerous wholesome suggestions, which, as coming from so eminent and experienced an authority, cannot fail to carry considerable weight with them, the address is particularly interesting as it corrects many fallacies that have currently obtained concerning Professor Huxley's "peculiar" views in this direction. After dwelling upon the practical value of instruction in physical science, and its superiority to any other study as a mental discipline, the speaker (as reported by *Nature*) laid special stress upon the fact that he was no advocate of the exclusion of other forms of culture from education, but, on the contrary, insisted that it would be a serious mistake to cripple them for the sake of science. He had no sympathy, he said, with a kind of sect or horde of scientific Goths and Vandals, who think that it would be proper and desirable to sweep away all other forms of culture and instruction except those in physical science. As to the material of education or learning, Professor Huxley adds: "It is not a question whether one order of study should predominate or that another should. It is a question of what topics of education you shall select which will combine all the needful elements in such due proportion as to give the greatest amount of food and support and encouragement to those faculties which enable us to appreciate truth, and to profit by those sources of innocent happiness which are open to us, and at the same time to avoid that which is bad and coarse and ugly, and to keep clear of the multitude of pitfalls and dangers which beset those who break through the natural and moral laws." After dwelling upon the worthlessness of the literary education hitherto dispensed by the English schools, the speaker stated, that if he "could make a clean sweep of everything, and start afresh, he would in the first place secure the training of the young in reading and writing, and in the habit of attention and observation both to that which is told them and that which they see; and he would make it absolutely necessary for everybody, for a longer or shorter period, to learn to draw—and there is nobody who cannot be made to draw more or less well." Besides the studies that might be considered strictly scientific, and such as pertain to pure literature, ancient no less than modern, Professor Huxley urges the necessity of a proper training in the history and geography of the mother country—"not as a mere chronicle of reigns and battles, but as a chapter in the development of the race and the history of civilization"—and in the sadly neglected theory of morals and of political and social life, "which, strangely enough, it never seems to occur to anybody to teach a child." . . . "Finally, I would add instruction in either music or painting, or, if the child should be so unhappy, as sometimes happens, to have no faculty for either of these, and no possibility of doing anything in an artistic sense with them, then I would see what could be done with literature alone; but I would provide in the fullest sense for the development of the aesthetic side of the mind."

—In a recent number of this journal the rather frequent abuse of postdating literary publications was animadverted upon. The mercenary reason for such practice is obvious. Antedating, however, also occurs, especially in Germany, where the issuing of works in instalments, or parts forming no separate volumes, is common. Generally the title-pages of such books are printed when the volumes are completed, and thus partial postdating takes place; but occasionally the title-page is issued with the first number or part,

bearing the date of the beginning of the publication, though this may require years for its completion. The 'Universal History,' edited by Professor W. Oncken, and published by G. Grote in Berlin, a publication of equally great dimensions and merit, offers several examples of such antedating. The advantage that may possibly arise from it is not perceptible. The disadvantage to the publisher is clear. Thus Dümichen's 'History of Ancient Egypt,' which is the first book in this collection, bears on its regular title-page the date 1878, and it is only half completed. When offered for sale, a year or two hence, as an independent book—which each work of the collection is—it will be considered a rather old publication. Nearly the same is the case with Lefmann's 'History of Ancient India,' begun in 1879, and still incomplete, and with several other component parts of the 'Universal History.' Many a reader of Dümichen's 'Egypt,' not aware of the way in which it appeared, will be surprised to find in a book dated 1878 references to works published in 1880, 1881, or 1882. The author will, of course, in this respect have the advantage over writers whose publications, bearing the date of completion, expose them to the reproach of unfamiliarity with the latest authorities on their subjects. The learned contributors to Riehm's 'Handwörterbuch des Biblischen Altertums,' for instance—a work in one large volume, begun in 1874, and probably to be dated 1884—will be made responsible by many a reader for their ignoring, in such articles as "Assyria" or "Babylonia," things discovered and made known a number of years before the date of the publication. It appears to us that, in justice to author, publisher, and buyer, volumes the issuing of which takes several years ought to indicate on their title-page the dates both of the beginning and the completion. Thus Riehm's 'Handwörterbuch,' if finished next year, ought to be dated 1874-1884. The practice of partial antedating, however, ought to be entirely abandoned. We have before us a small encyclopædia—Kliushnikoff's, published in St. Petersburg—embracing events down to 1882, and dated 1878. Its publishers must be losers to a great extent by this mistake. Why was not a new title-page added to the last instalment, dated 1882, or, more properly, 1878-1882?

—Friedrich's 'Bausteine' is a running commentary on the collection of casts from the antique in the Berlin Museum. The collection is probably the best of its kind in the world, and Friedrich's critical authority is of the first order. Mr. D. Cady Eaton has just completed a translation of it in three parts (New Haven), and his notes show the zeal and research of the student. The writings of Friedrich are learned and acute, and of interest to all scholarly readers. His exegesis is not altogether exempt from the German tendency to fumble (we know of no better word for it) among the inner sensations and mental processes of the artists whose works are under discussion; nor from dogmatism, as when he says of Egyptian and Assyrian relief that "The object of putting heads and legs in profile was undoubtedly to prevent the projection of noses and feet beyond the surface." But it is very difficult to write a concise commentary without dogmatism, and the German *Innertlichkeit*, if it is sometimes amusing, does no harm; the learning and the discrimination are indisputably here. Translated for Americans, Mr. Eaton's three hundred pages or so of selections are in their present form a commentary without a text; for they are without illustrations, while there is not in our country a collection of casts which offers the range of examples that they cover. Being arranged, however, in the form of a handbook

they lend themselves more to special reference than to continuous reading. For this use, and for the wants of readers in English to whom a German book of the scope of Overbeck's 'Geschichte der Griechischen Plastik' is impracticable, we know of nothing so good and so convenient. Now and then, especially in his third part, Mr. Eaton strays away pretty widely from Friedrichs, and supplements or replaces him by his own or other authorities, sometimes to advantage, and sometimes, we think, not to his readers' benefit, as, for instance, in his discussion of the Venus of Melos—or Milo. In a prefatory note, he says that he publishes his selections at first in numbers, in order to invite suggestions. We will therefore venture to offer one. It is that when these numbers are reprinted in book form, as we trust they may be, with illustrations, a translation of the introductory chapter on Greek sculpture in the volume (vol. ii.) which Friedrichs contributed to Schnaase's 'Geschichte der bildenden Künste,' should be prefixed to them. There could be no better introduction to the book—omitting, possibly, the first half-dozen pages—and it would be hard to find a better summarizing of the forms and qualities of Greek sculpture.

—Mention has already been made in these pages of the new series of biographies, called "Les Célébrités Contemporaines," to be published in Paris by M. Quantin (New York: F. W. Christern). The first half-dozen numbers have now appeared. The idea of the series is identical with that of the little yellow-covered collection of the writer who called himself "Eugène de Mirecourt," and who used his series of "Les Contemporains, portraits et silhouettes au XIX. siècle" as a means of abusing those of his fellow-Frenchmen whom he did not like, or with whom he disagreed either politically or theologically. But while Mirecourt's pamphlets were wholly untrustworthy, as he was equally unscrupulous in praise or in blame, the present series is to be written by writers of character having a reputation to lose, and treating each a congenial subject. The declaration is distinctly made that each biography will be the work of a friend—M. Zola, for instance, will have his portrait taken from life by his chief and ablest disciple, M. Guy de Maupassant. As we have already noted, the most of the literary biographies will be written by M. Jules Claretie. Two of these, M. Victor Hugo and M. Émile Augier, have already appeared. The sketch of M. Augier's honorable career and the characterization of his noble works are in M. Claretie's best manner. Here and there we detect fragments of criticism already printed in his 'Vie Moderne au Théâtre.' The little book on Victor Hugo, like nearly all contemporary French writing on this subject, is wholly uncritical. It is a pan, a rhapsody of praise as colossal as its hero's vanity. M. Claretie records Hugo's naïf remark, that it is perhaps time for him (Hugo) "de désencombrer mon siècle!" Hugo is also set down as saying, "I was born at the right time for my glory: I am astride of two centuries!" Every little volume contains thirty-two octavo pages of text, a facsimile of MS., and an etched portrait of no striking artistic merit. It is a little odd that of the five biographies announced to be first published at the beginning of the year, Grévy, Hugo, Louis Blanc, Augier, and Gambetta, two have had to appear after the death of the subject.

—In Professor Karl Witte, the eminent jurist and Dante student, who died at Halle in the night of March 5-6, our century has lost its oldest celebrity, for Witte was famous eighty years ago, though then barely three years old. His father, a village pastor of considerable attainments, living at Lochau, near Halle, had pro-

posed to himself to bestow upon his Karl, by a strict and systematic education calculated to develop his mental and bodily powers equally and harmoniously, the highest degree of culture of which *mens sana in corpore sano* was capable. The study of languages he considered the least injurious to an infant, and before the end of his first lustrum the boy was a linguistic prodigy, being familiar, among other tongues, with Hebrew and Greek. His acquirements were the results of methodical training rather than of natural—or unnatural—precocity. He made, subsequently, the same strides in the sciences, and in January, 1810, at the age of nine years and six months—he was born on July 1, 1800—he was duly matriculated a student of the Leipzig University. On the demand of King Jerome, of Westphalia, he was transferred to the University of Göttingen, and here he wrote, at the age of twelve, a mathematical treatise in Latin, on the conchoids of Nicomedes, which a year later procured him the title of doctor of philosophy. In 1814-16 he studied law in Heidelberg. Aided by the King of Prussia, he made a literary tour, and spent two years in the libraries and galleries of Italy, dividing his time between jurisprudence, art study, and Italian literature. He had not belied his juvenile fame, and his father deemed himself entitled to make known to the world the methods by which he had carried out his educational task, which he did in a work in two volumes, entitled 'Karl Witte der Jüngere, oder Erziehungs- und Bildungsgeschichte desselben' (1819). This book deservedly attracted general attention. The son shortly after became professor of law at the University of Breslau, and from 1834 till his death he officiated in the same capacity at Halle. He lectured and wrote on Roman, Byzantine, and Prussian law, but to Italian literature, and especially to the study of Dante, he devoted the best energies of his life, with an almost tender affection which manifested itself even on his death bed. His editions and translations, with comments, of the works of the great Italian poet, rank among the foremost publications of the kind on either side of the Alps. Karl Witte ceased to be a prodigy when he began his professional career, but he preserved his health, his habits of diligent study, his mental vigor and serenity, and his standing as an author unimpaired to the close of his life. His last publication, the second part of his 'Dante-Forschungen,' appeared in 1879.

—Mme. Albani is, beyond question, one of the best *Sentas* to be found on the stage. Signor Galassi also is an admirable singer and a genuine artist, whose talent is not limited to the style of one country; while Signor Ravelli has often received just praise as an interpreter of Italian melodies. These three singers were in the cast of the "Flying Dutchman," which was given on March 21 for the first time in New York by Mr. Mapleson's company, although other companies have given it years ago. And yet the performance as a whole was very poor, and often abominable. We see here at once the difference between a German and an Italian opera. Given three good singers like those above-mentioned, together with an ordinary beer-house band and primitive chorus, and an Italian opera may yet be performed in such a way as to afford satisfaction, because it is merely a "concert in costume" for the soloists. But Wagner's operas are in the first place dramas, and unless every detail of action and scenery is brought into the most intimate relation with the music, the latter must necessarily miss its effect and appear aimless. There is not the slightest exaggeration in saying that Wagner, in writing his music, had in his mind's eye the gesture, action, and facial expression that are to accompany every single bar of the

music. This is how he describes the first appearance on the stage of the *Dutchman*, in a special article which may be found in the fifth volume of his collected works (p. 208):

"While the trumpets sound their low notes (B minor) at the end of the introduction, he has stepped forward over a plank placed by the sailors between the ship and a rock on shore; the first note of the ritornello of the aria (the low E sharp of the basses) is accompanied by the first step of the *Dutchman* on the land; his staggering gait, characteristic of seamen when they first come on shore after a long voyage, is again musically accompanied by the wavy movement of the cellos and violas; the first quarter of the third bar coincides with his first step, his arms being always folded and his countenance lowered; the third and fourth steps coïncide with the notes of the eighth and tenth bars."

It cannot be said that Signor Galassi followed all these minute details, but, in a general way, his conception of the part was correct and interesting, and no one could fail to admire his beautiful voice and the ease with which he covered the unusual intervals. What was lacking in his impersonation was that weird fascination and power which the best German vocalists manifest in this part, and for which, it must in justice be added, they are largely indebted to the dramatic excellence of their support. Mme. Albani's *Senta* was the naïve, healthy, northern maiden of Wagner's fancy, whose dreaminess never degenerates into sickly sentimentality. The most critical moment in her part is that when she is left alone face to face with the *Dutchman*. Here, as in other situations, Mme. Albani showed herself a gifted actress. Her only fault was a disposition to alter a cadence or displace a rest in order to secure a special effect of operatic vocalism. There was no great exaggeration in this, but it should have been avoided altogether. Signor Ravelli had the short semi-lyric rôle of *Erik*, and he conceived it entirely in an Italian spirit—that is to say, he spoiled it. "He will do me a poor service," says Wagner, "who sings the cavatina in the third act in a sweet style; it should rather breathe sadness and melancholy." Signor Ravelli also took a great many liberties with his notes, leaving out some and putting in others where it suited his fancy. His *Erik*, in a word, was as unsatisfactory as Campanini's *Lohengrin* always is. Of Signor Clodio's *Steersman* it need only be said that it was the strongest argument against compulsory pilotage ever advanced in this city. When we add to this that the chorus was only good in the second act, and made a terrible hodge-podge of the grand choruses of the other two acts, in so far as the conductor had not cut them out, it may be imagined that the total effect of the performance was painful to one who has heard this opera in Germany. The lyric second act was very well done, but the rest was vandalism, pure and simple. Instead of being dreary, as it seemed, the first act is really wonderfully fine, and full of the most characteristic music. But it is necessary to attend to a thousand details which were neglected at the Academy.

—Gounod's "Roméo et Juliette" is one of those operas which, like Weber's "Euryanthe" and some of Gluck's works, may confidently expect a much greater popularity in the future than they have ever had in the past. There is more good music and a thousand times more dramatic character in it than in a dozen works like "Lucia," "Favorita," and "Rigoletto"; and as the taste of our operatic audiences cannot fail to follow the same evolution as has been going on abroad, there is reason to believe that Gounod's work will figure very prominently on our operatic repertory during the next ten or twenty years. It was written in 1867, seventeen years after the appearance of "Lohengrin," and bears as distinct

evidence of the influence of that epoch-making opera as "Carmen," "Aïda," and countless lesser works. It may not contain as many popular melodies as "Faust," but its dramatic style is even superior to that of "Faust," and the score is so full of beautiful details that one could listen to the orchestra alone for a whole evening without feeling bored for a moment. It is to be hoped that Mme. Patti, whose *Juliet* is said to be among her best rôles, will add this opera to her repertory when she returns to New York next season. The performance by Mr. Grau's Opéra Comique Company at the Casino on Monday unfortunately was not such as to win over many new friends to Gounod's cause, except among those who are experts at reading between the lines. "Romeo and Juliet" of course requires a first-class orchestra, in the first place, and not a small operetta band which is out of tune half the time, and showers down wrong notes as a storm does hailstones. The next requisite is a good chorus. The one actually employed was very inadequate to its task, except in the great duel scene, where it was surprisingly good. The smaller characters were all admirably acted and indifferently sung, as was to be expected in a French company. Mlle. Derivis presented an interesting *Juliet* to the eye. Her acting might be studied to advantage by some *Juliets* on the dramatic stage, and her singing would have been acceptable if her voice had not been usually a quarter of a tone above the pitch, for it is otherwise of good quality. M. Capoul acted with his well-known dash and fire in the duelling scene, which he rendered quite exciting; but his love-making scenes were spoiled by his over-sentimental attitudes and his constant transitions from fortissimo chest-notes to pianissimo falsetto notes.

ENGLISH POPULAR BALLADS.

The English and Scottish Popular Ballads.
Edited by Francis James Child. Part I. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

ALL lovers of our ballad literature are familiar with the collection of English and Scottish ballads which came out in 1857-8 under the editorship of Prof. Child. In the eight volumes which made up that work were first brought together, from widely scattered sources, the most famous pieces of the kind existing in our tongue. Nor was it the only distinguishing excellence of the collection that it was fuller than others: it had the special peculiarity that the poems included in it were given in the most authentic form then attainable. Genuineness of text was an object, indeed, that lay near to the heart of the editor. The impossibility of securing it in the condition of things then existing was a source of constant regret, and justified an occasional lapse into wrath. There is a suggestive note to the preface, in which the editor gave vent to his latent indignation by asserting that in retaining certain pieces from Buchan's collection which he believed to have been tampered with, he had been under the necessity of exercising a good deal of resolution, and suppressing a great deal of disgust. For, as a matter of fact, a genuine text was in most cases not then attainable. All previous editors had been possessed with the devil of emendation and so-called improvement. Alterations made by them could be suspected, but without the sight of the original manuscript they could not be proved. Still less could the early authentic form be ascertained; for the original manuscripts had passed in most cases out of sight, and in some cases out of existence.

Twenty-five years have gone by since the collection spoken of was published, and we now see the first instalment of a work which will do for

the ballads of our tongue an office too long postponed. The delay was inevitable, but none the less has it been unfortunate, for much has doubtless perished which years ago could have been recovered and permanently preserved. The schoolmaster is abroad, and the goodness of the work he has done need not be denied; but it is one of the indirect results of his omnipresent activity that the ballads of English speech, like the words of English dialects, have passed away for ever, or are in process of passing away. The songs of the people are no longer handed down from generation to generation by word of mouth. The old women who once made the hair of children stand on end with stories of desperate doing and daring have found their vocation gone, and have ceased to remember what no one cares to hear. "The spinsters and the knitters in the sun" chant no more what England's great dramatist characterized as the plain and antique songs that dally with the innocence of love. The mind of the boy is now rarely thrilled, as in the old age, with tales of heroic achievement which, even in maturer years, Sidney confessed stirred his heart more than the blast of a trumpet. We have changed all this: our children need no longer resort to the rude devices of unlearned times. Besides the annual overflowing Christmas supply of literary milk-and-water, they have now plenty of monthly and weekly publications specially devoted to their intellectual nutriment, and it is merely a question of time when a daily paper will be printed solely for their use. Fortunately, they have already learned to take on the habits of their elders, and are saved from the worst effects of reading the things they do, by not remembering anything they read.

The necessity of preserving these ballads, not as they have been printed, but as they were written—or at any rate handed down by oral tradition—has therefore been long a pressing one; but the work could not be done, because there were no means of ascertaining the form they originally had. The Percy folio, the most important collection of all, had been for a long time in hands which denied even the sight of it to the most eminent English scholars. For any apparent benefit resulting from its existence, it might as well have been returned to its place under the bureau in Humphrey Pitt's parlor, whence, dirty, tattered, and used by the maids for kindling the fire, it had been rescued by the youthful antiquary. But well-directed, energetic, and persistent importunity, coupled with the use of money, at last rescued this literary treasure from any further chance of destruction. In 1867-8 it was brought out in four volumes, edited with most scrupulous fidelity and intelligence by Mr. Hales and Mr. Furnivall. The text was then for the first time printed in all its original purity—or impurity, if one so chooses to consider it.

The publication of this book enabled all students to know at once, and positively, what was the genuine ballad, and what was the article that had been masquerading in its guise. As an illustration of Percy's method of dealing with his material, two examples will suffice. The story of "The Child of Ell" is a form of one of the most widely-spread tales of northern Europe. As it existed in the manuscript, it was a fragment of thirty-nine lines. These Percy took as the basis to form a complete ballad of his own, which appeared in the *Reliques* as a poem of some two hundred lines; and even in this, very few of the original thirty-nine appeared in their authentic form. In a similar way, he polished "The Heir of Lin," and did his work so thoroughly that, according to the editors of the folio, "he could see his own face in it." In this case, also, the one hundred and twenty-five lines

of the manuscript came out two hundred and sixteen under his multiplying hand; and, as usual, there was little or nothing to indicate certainly what was ancient and what was modern. These are, to be sure, among the extreme instances; but they make clear the light in which ballads were regarded, and show the spirit that presided over this attempt to bring them before the public. Percy, indeed, can be pardoned for failing to print but one-fourth of the matter contained in the manuscript, for he printed the best; but he cannot well escape blame for the unwarrantable liberties he took with the text. To borrow a phrase which the speculative transactions of our time have made too familiar, he was constantly engaged in watering his stock: and he had as little conscience in the operation as any modern railway director. The result was that the diluted expression and mawkish sentiment which were added to the directness and rude vigor of the original, made often a mixture which the modern editors very appropriately call "a flood of ballad-and-water," from the most copious draughts of which little intellectual sustenance or poetical inspiration can be derived.

One can easily, however, be too hard on Percy, and that, moreover, most unfairly. It was a venturesome undertaking—and he fully felt it to be so—for any man in that age of paint and periwigs and powder to treat as worthy of print "these old things," as in one place Percy deprecatingly termed them. His preface was almost painful in its apologetic tone. These ballads, he said, were written merely for the people, and he recognized the fact that great allowances would have to be made for them by the men of the polished generation he was addressing. He did not disguise his apprehension that in the highly improved state to which literature had then attained, the artless graces and pleasing simplicity of these productions would not be deemed worthy of the attention of the public. He doubtless felt that he had, and perhaps he actually had, to dress them up, in order that they should be received at all: and if he did sometimes dress them up so that they would hardly have known themselves, let us not forget the polite society in which it was his lot to introduce them. Even in the new attire, sometimes gorgeous and sometimes sentimental, in which they appeared, it was hard to get any recognition for them from the arbiters of the reigning taste. It was, perhaps, partly due to a vague feeling of prudence on their part: for these ballads, even in the "improved" condition in which they saw the light, were to be one of the main agencies in overthrowing the principles of the literary dynasty that then held supreme power. Much unfairness is often shown to the eighteenth century by men who, not simply content with abandoning the poetical faith it cherished, feel it incumbent to revile unqualifiedly its poetical achievement. But it is doing it no injustice to say that naturalness and unconsciousness are not the qualities that specially mark its literary character. These, however, are the very qualities which most distinguish the genuine ballad. It may be uncouth, but it is always simple and spontaneous, and therefore strong. It goes straight to its mark. It is written under the pressure of absorbing emotion, in which the poet surrenders himself to his inspiration, and is not consciously practising his art. It is the more effective because it is not aiming at effect. The ballad-writer, in fact, produced his verse as Porson said that Fox produced his sentence: he threw himself into the middle of it, and left it to God Almighty to get him out again. No one needs to be told that it is not in this way the poetry of the eighteenth century was usually written.

Considerations like these show of what essential importance it is that the ancient ballads of our tongue should be secured and preserved in the earliest and most authentic form attainable. In one respect the delay has been fortunate, for the work has fallen into hands the most capable in the long line of editors of doing it with the most absolute accuracy and completeness that are now within reach. It is no secret to students of our ballad literature that, ever since the publication of the Percy folio at least, Prof. Child has had this undertaking in mind. It is doing the simplest act of justice to say that in his qualifications for this self-imposed and most laborious service to literature he finds no superiors among the living or the dead; nor would it probably be doing any injustice to any belonging to either of these two classes to say, further, that he finds no equal. His zeal and industry have, moreover, brought to light treasures that but for him would probably have perished. When the Percy folio had been secured and printed, there still remained several other manuscript collections which had been used by previous editors. These belonged mainly to the north of Britain. Scotland can justly be proud of her ballad poetry, and, in the consideration of its quantity and excellence, one can feel pity rather than express reproach for the patriotism, equally profane and inane, that ventures to compare Barbour with Chaucer. It is gratifying to learn, as we do from the advertisement, that several of the manuscript collections of these ballads, as well as versions of individual ones, have been secured. The generous help of many is amply acknowledged, but it needs no special insight to see that the success in procuring unused material has been due mainly to the indefatigable exertions of the editor, and to the enthusiasm which his own enthusiasm has communicated to all who were interested in this kind of literature.

Of the execution of the work, so far as it has already been done, it is scarcely possible to speak in terms of too high praise. The present part is but a slight instalment of the whole. It consists, in fact, of but twenty-eight ballads; yet these, with their illustrative comparison of the story, and with their variations of version, take up more than two hundred and fifty double-columned pages. The amount of study put upon the work, the amount of investigation displayed in it, are, indeed, such as to appall veteran scholars who have been wont to attack the most formidable literary strongholds. When completed on the scale on which it has been begun, we feel justified in saying that it will be the most important contribution that American scholarship has yet made to any subject concerned primarily with literature.

It hardly needs to be added that a work of this kind is not intended for the ordinary reader, even if he be a man of letters. It is, in truth, a storehouse to which the student of language, the student of poetry, the student of fiction, and the student of folk lore must resort for information of a special kind, which can be found collected in its pages, and, so far at least as our own language is concerned, in its pages alone. Its value will therefore increase rather than diminish with time; yet even now he who reads mainly for amusement will not fail to find much in it to entertain and instruct a man of literary taste. It remains to add that the work is published by subscription, and that the publishers have done their part in making its external appearance as attractive as the internal is valuable. It will not be to the credit of the American people if a collection like this—the fruit of earnest and unselfish devotion to literature for its own sake—does not meet with adequate appreciation and encouragement.

McMASTER'S HISTORY OF THE AMERICAN PEOPLE.

A History of the People of the United States, from the Revolution to the Civil War. By John Bach McMaster. In 5 vols. Vol. I. D. Appleton & Co. 1883.

THE striking passage in which Macaulay refers the differences in the historical methods of Herodotus and Thucydides to the change in the characteristics of their countrymen, was evidently written not alone for Greece or for Great Britain, but for America as well. Here, also, the stage has been passed in which feeling is of supreme moment in the narration of history, in which we transfer to former times all the characteristics of our own, and, consciously or unconsciously, attribute our own prejudices to men who were as foreign to them as Brahmin is to Parisian. Here, too, we "aspire to know, where our ancestors were content to doubt, and begin to doubt, where our ancestors thought it their duty to believe." The attitude of the reader has changed; so far as he can get, he most desires full and exact statement, accurate definition, and a faithful projection of the real actors in the story, without any disguise of their elements of weakness as well as of strength. The consequence has been that the basis of historical narration has changed very considerably within the memory of men now living. The historian's business is no longer mainly with kings and presidents, with the negotiation of treaties and the planning and fighting of campaigns, with the discussions of the senate and the comparative merits of rival statesmen. These are but the bubbles on the surface of the mighty river—the people—that underlies them and governs their course. To this the historian must give its due proportion. He must not be satisfied until he has made the people of the past as definite and clear to view as the people of the present, until the reader has as exact a notion of what action or feeling would have been natural or unnatural to the men of the past as he has in the case of the men of the present. The great events of history will not then come to the reader "like supernatural inflictions, without reason or cause." History will then take on a complete and natural symmetry, and the historian, like an inspired census-taker, will hold up a mirror which reflects the portraiture of the times, not of himself.

If this is to be the scope of history, the volume under consideration is the beginning of that which bids fair to be the authoritative history of the United States for the period which it covers. It is such a book as John Richard Green would have written if he had been able to devote an entire volume to the history of seven years. It is the history of the people of the United States, thrown upon a larger canvas than Green could afford to use, and, therefore, making visible more minute lines than can be found even in the 'History of the English People.' It is a storehouse of facts concerning the life, feelings, and limitations of the people, attractively grouped, and stated with precision and masculine energy. There may be, probably will be, lacking in subsequent volumes something of that wonderful grasp of the nation's environment, of the influence of other nations upon it, and of it upon other nations, which gives Green's work its unique position in its own school. But this lack would hardly be noticeable in the history of a people like that of the United States, whose life has as yet been comparatively self-contained, and is but just growing into its full influence upon the life of the world. Prof. McMaster's work, so far as it has gone, deals with a time when nobody read an American book, and the American people was

living its own isolated life. It is, therefore, fair to ask only how far it has followed those modern canons of historical criticism which are applicable to the history of a people so situated.

The first hundred pages of the volume are given to a very full and successful delineation of the American as he was in 1784. If any fault could be found with the details, it would be that they deal perhaps too closely with the New-Englander at the expense of the Southerner, the people of the Middle States receiving about a fair share of attention. It may very well be that the author's intention is to leave the more exhaustive treatment of the Southern social system until it has taken permanent shape, after 1793. With this exception, hardly any fault can be found with this part of the work, which is not at all confined to the first hundred pages, but continues at intervals throughout the volume. The average American's poverty of books, his difficulties of travel, his isolation from all the outside influences which so powerfully affect his descendants, are all stated minutely and clearly, and cannot fail to awaken the reader's attention to the strangeness of the country he is entering. Constant comparisons between past and present enforce the contrast. The history is that of a time when fewer letters were distributed in all the thirteen States in a whole year than are now distributed at New York city every twenty-four hours; when newspapers were not admitted to the mails, and were only carried for a special fee by the post riders; when postmasters and post riders habitually opened and read the letters in the mails at their pleasure; when every political leader was compelled to write in cipher; and when the output of the whole periodical press of the country did not equal in amount that of a single modern daily newspaper. And the quality of the newspaper of the time was very much on a par with the quantity.

"The student of history who seeks in the *Packets and Advertisers* of that day for information on matters which interest him to know, will in all likelihood search long and find but little. He will read much about the sin of idleness, about the value of economy, about the wretchedness of the wicked woman whose feet take hold on hell; but he will meet with nothing, or next to nothing, on many of the most exciting topics and important events of the time. He will, for instance, look in vain for any extensive information on the abhorrence which the people felt for the Cincinnati, on the proceedings of the Middletown Convention, on the action against the Mayor's Court for its decision in the case of Rutgers against Waddington, on the formation of the State of Franklin, or the rupture of the Committee of the States, whereby the country was left without a government for many weeks. These were matters concerning which an editor two hundred miles away had no direct means of knowing. He had not in every city and town a well-paid correspondent whose duty it was to collect the freshest bits of scandal, to interview the latest public character, and to send accounts of the course of public opinion. For all this he was indebted to a source now rarely, if ever, used even in a backwoods village or a prairie town. Any gentleman who was so fortunate as to receive a letter from a distant part of the country was expected to display his public spirit by sending to the printer such portions of it as were likely to be of interest to the community. Scarce a week, therefore, went by but the *Gazettes* contained many scraps of valuable information under such headings as 'A Letter from a Gentleman at the Falls of the Ohio to his Friend in New England,' 'A Letter from a Gentleman resident in Virginia to his Friend in this City.' Sometimes these communications would fill a column, and almost always they were well worth a careful perusal."

The faithfulness of this and other descriptions will be recognized by those who have had occasion to recur to such original sources. But the mass of readers have had no such occasion. To them the things and events of the past are unconsciously associated with those of the present,

and the man of 1784, who had fought out the war of the Revolution, who framed the Confederation and the Constitution, is much the same personage, albeit with a singular taste in dress, as the man of 1883, who telephones from New York city to Cleveland, telegraphs around the world, crosses the continent in a week, and pays a national debt of three thousand millions in a generation. For any such unconscious cerebration there will no longer be any excuse, if this work is carried out in the manner in which it has been begun. At every step the reader is guarded against any danger of confounding the country of the present with the country of the past. He is cautioned that if he could look upon the country as it was in 1784 he would not recognize it:

"The hamlets of a few fishermen would mark the sites of wealthy havens now bristling with innumerable masts, and the great cities themselves would dwindle to dimensions scarce exceeding those of some rude settlement far to the west of the Colorado River. Of the inventions and discoveries which abridge distance, which annihilate time, which extend commerce, which aid agriculture, which save labor, which transmit speech, which turn the darkness of the night into the brilliancy of the day, which alleviate pain, which destroy disease, which lighten even the infirmities of age, not one existed. Fulton was still a portrait-painter, Fitch and Rumsey had not yet begun to study the steam-engine, Whitney had not yet gone up to college, Howe and Morse, McCormick and Fairbanks, Good-year and Colt, Dr. Morton and Dr. Bell were yet to be born. A narrow line of towns and hamlets extended, with many breaks, along the coast from the province of Maine to Georgia, but fifty miles back from the waters of the Atlantic the country was an unbroken jungle."

The sparseness of population, and the lack of facilities for the interchange of intelligence, were aggravated by the difficulties of travel:

"While Washington was serving his first term, two stages and twelve horses sufficed to carry all the travellers and goods passing between New York and Boston, then the two great commercial centres of the country. The conveyances were old and shuffling, the harness made mostly of rope; the beasts were ill-fed, and worn to skeletons. The ordinary day's journey was forty miles in summer; but in winter, when the roads were bad and the darkness came on early in the afternoon, rarely more than twenty-five. . . . Even a trip from Brooklyn to New York, across a river scarce half as wide as that separating the city from New Jersey, was attended with risks and delays that would now be thought intolerable. Then, and indeed till the day, thirty years later, when the rude steam-boats of Fulton made their appearance on the ferry, the only means of transportation for man and beast were clumsy row-boats, flat-bottomed, square-ended scows with sprit-sails, and two-masted boats called periquas. Every week small herds of steers and flocks of sheep were driven to the ferry, shut up in pens, and brought over the river, a few at a time, on the scows. The calmest days, the smoothest water, and a slack tide were, if possible, chosen for such trips. Yet even then, whoever went upon a cattle-boat took his life in his hands. If a sudden gust of wind struck the sails, or if one of the half-dozen bullocks became restless, the scow was sure to upset."

The political history of the years covered by the first volume is full, minute, and accurate. There is no attempt to disguise the fact that the success of Dr. Cutler's Ohio Company, and the passage of the Ordinance of 1787, were intimately associated with a gigantic land-jobbing scheme, in which all the influential members of Congress were "let in on the ground floor." There is no attempt to disguise other similar features of contemporary politics, which, if they should occur now, would brighten the faces and lighten the labors of the Washington correspondents, and supply a battery from which to shock the country with the revelation of official scandals. The details of social life, too, are given with painstaking completeness. The misery of the poor man's life; the horrors which armed his

ever-watchful enemy, the law of imprisonment for debt; the formal courtesies of the higher classes, their amusements, relaxations, and business methods; the wilder life of the State of Franklin and the county of Kentucky—all these are so fully covered that the scrutiny which could suggest missing details would be severe indeed.

But, after all, however interesting these may be and however spirited the manner of their narration and grouping, the great and crowning excellence of Mr. McMaster's work is its faithfulness in picturing the enormous difficulties of national action in 1784 and the succeeding quarter of a century. If the work is completed as it has been begun, its reader will never be assailed by the insidious temptation to clothe the characters of which he is reading with the attributes of the present, to transfer to the American of 1784 the characteristics and advantages of the American of the present. He will feel no surprise at occasional suggestions of secession in various parts of the country, for he will have been already completely acquainted with the social and political limitations of which they were the fruit; nor will he remember them as an excuse for later suggestions of secession, when the original limitations had disappeared. To him the history of the United States will not seem a succession of inexplicable cataclysms provoked by the bad temper or folly, the wisdom or good luck, of the people of one section or the other, but an orderly succession of natural events, the inevitable effects of moving causes which have already taken their places in his memory and judgment. For these reasons, this first volume is a most encouraging promise of the standard history of the people of the United States.

A single criticism, if it be a criticism, might be made upon the promise that the work is to be completed in five volumes. If it has taken one volume to cover the years 1784-90, it is difficult to see how the remaining seventy years, down to "the beginning of the Civil War," are to be covered, after the same method, in four volumes. The work ought not to be written for the reader of 1883 or 1890 alone, and, if it is to be of permanent value, it must cover the expanding social conditions of 1830-60 as fully as it has done those of 1784-90. But any such criticism would be premature, and the increasing homogeneity of modern society will probably obviate it.

THE IMPERIAL DICTIONARY.

Imperial Dictionary of the English Language.

By John Ogilvie, LL.D. New edition, edited by Charles Annandale, M.A. Illustrated. 4 vols. London: Blackie & Son; New York: The Century Co.

THIS work, of which we have here what might be called either the second or third edition, has been for thirty-six years in vogue on the other side of the water. First published in 1847-50, it was distinctly the offspring of Webster's Dictionary, of which it became the parent when it introduced the practice of inserting illustrations in the text—a most legitimate mode of definition. To adopt the reckoning of the title-page, the present edition contains 3,000 woodcuts, or, as exactly as possible, an average of one for every page. The length of the printed page is nearly the same as that of Webster, the width less by one and a half inches, so that each of the three columns is considerably narrower than in the American work. The type is substantially the same, but that of the catchwords is rather more distinct in the 'Imperial Dictionary,' to which on the whole we should give the palm for convenience to the hand as well as to the eye of the searcher. The binding, of a blue-black cloth, is

simple and tasteful. The four volumes have the compensation of lightness when consulted individually, but add to their obvious disadvantage that of being divided in the midst of a letter (though not of an article). The third volume, however, begins with L, as the first volume with A.

The prime cause of the bulkiness of this work is that it encroaches upon the cyclopædia. This has been the tendency even in our American dictionaries: consult the definition of *morris* as given by Webster. The 'Imperial Dictionary' purposely expands some of its definitions so as to include details commonly reserved for technical or historical works. Compare *bile*, *blow-pipe*, *chavvin*, *heliotype*, etc. Under *steelyard*, the principle of this balance is set forth; under *steam-engine* and *steam-whistle*, the accompanying diagrams are explained by references to the lettering; under *perfectionist*, we read, truly, "The founder of the sect was John Humphrey Noyes, and the principal community is established on a farm at Oneida Creek, in the State of New York. The followers of Noyes call themselves also *Bible Communists*," and much more, both historical and doctrinal. A second source of great fullness is in the illustrative quotations from standard authors. There are more in all than in Webster, and where the latter gives only the significant part of a verse of Shakspeare or Milton, for example, the 'Imperial Dictionary' often rounds out the couplet or stanza—compare *deck* (of cards). The editors have also had the good thought to introduce as many "familiar quotations" as practicable. Finally, their use of American writers has been very liberal. The third begetter of length is the vocabulary, and here the editors have not only profited by the most recent supplements to Worcester and Webster, but have incorporated Scotch words to an extent that should disturb the rest of Dr. Johnson. They have, finally, added a supplement of their own to the last volume, in which we find such neologisms as *bell-punch*, *boycott*, *circumnutation* (Darwin), *closure*, *ego-altruistic* (Spencer), *ensilage*, and many more not given by Webster, together with a much greater number common to the two works. Proper names like *Asura*, *Accad*, *Benthamism*, *Danite*, etc., abound in both, but on no clear principle of selection, and have a questionable title to be included, apart from their undoubted convenience. Americanisms, like *greenback*, *hoodlum*, *interview*, *lacrosse*, *phenomenal*, *record* (political), *repeater*, *ticket*, *underground railroad*, etc., are well represented. *Boss*, in its political sense, is not recognized. The nice point in the metaphor which gave birth to *carpet-bagger* is quite missed in the statement—"because regarded as having no more property than might fill a carpet-bag"—and the subsequent definition—"a needy political adventurer who goes about the country," etc. Worcester's definition is much better. The *carpet-bagger* was one who had only a transient interest in the country he infested—a sojourner, who meant to stay only till he had filled his pockets with the spoils of politics. His opposite was the bona-fide settler.

The etymologies may be trusted as among the best now accessible. They have had the advantage of Skeat's Dictionary (compare *bludgeon*, *whitlow*), but they do not slavishly follow that author's conclusions (compare *havoc*, *hurlyburly*, *mate*, *picnic*). The synonyms are, perhaps, not superior to Webster's. The definitions are of unequal merit, and in one department, for which preëminence is claimed in the prospectus, so deficient that we think proper to dwell on them, in order that the editors of the new dictionary projected by the Century Co., and based on the 'Imperial,' may take warning in time. We

refer to zoölogical terms, of which we must give a few examples :

"*Agouta* (a gū'ta), n. [Native name.] An insectivorous mammal peculiar to Hayti, of the family *Talpidae*, and the sole member of the genus *Solenodon*. It is so puzzling to naturalists that it has received the name of *S. paradoxus*. It has the fur, ears, and tail of the opossum, but the teeth and elongated nose of the shrews. . . . It is of the size of a rat, and not unlike one."

The agouta does not belong to "the family *Talpidae*," but to another widely distinct one; it is not the "sole member of the genus *Solenodon*," but has a congener in Cuba much better known; it is no longer "puzzling to naturalists," but for two score years its relationships have been understood and generally admitted; it has not "the fur, ears, and tail of the opossum," but its own—that is, those parts are characteristic; the teeth, far from being those "of the shrews," are so different as to have compelled recent naturalists to place it in a different primary division of the order; its elongated snout is better simulated by other insectivores than the shrews; and the final remark not only is untrue, but contradicts the previous ones.

"*Agouti* (a-gū'ti), n. The Indian name of several species of rodent mammals, family *Caviidae*, genus *Dasyprocta* or *Chloromys*. The common agouti, or yellow-rumped cavy (*D. Agouti*), is of the size of a rabbit. The upper part of the body is brownish, with a mixture of red and black; the belly yellowish. Three varieties are mentioned, all peculiar to South America and the West Indies," etc.

The etymological statement is not only indefinite, but actually wrong; the agouti does not belong to the family *Caviidae* (not *Cavidae*), but to a peculiar one (*Dasyproctidae*); *Chloromys* is an obsolete synonym, and not a true alternative name, as might be supposed; ten species of agoutis are now recognized, and not "three varieties" (in a dictionary wherein definitions are the principal feature, such loose interchange of words as "species" and "varieties" is a grave fault); agoutis range northwards into Mexico, and are consequently not "peculiar to South America and the West Indies."

"*Ape* (āp), n. [A. Sax. *apa*; the word is widely spread; comp. Icel. *api*, D. *ap*, Dan. *ape*, G. *affe*, O. H. G. *affo*, Ir. and Gael *apa*, W. *epa*, O. Bohem. *ov*, Mod. Bohem. *opek*, an ape; an initial guttural has been lost in all these words seen in Gr. *kēpos*, Skr. *kapi*, an ape.] One of a family (*Simiidae*) of quadrumanous animals found in the torrid zone of both continents, including a great variety of species. The word ape, as well as the terms monkey and baboon, were formerly applied indiscriminately to all quadrumanous mammals; but it is now limited to such as have the teeth of the same number and form as in man, and which possess neither tails nor cheek-pouches. The family includes the chimpanzee, gibbon, gorilla, orang-outang, Barbary ape, &c., and has been divided into three genera, *Troglodytes*, *Simia*, and *Hylobates*," etc.

The first sentence is badly constructed, and its meaning ambiguous; the termination "ade" is a defiance of etymology not tolerable in a dictionary of etymologies; the statement that *Simiidae* are found in "both continents" is at least misleading; the family is represented in two continents—Africa and Asia—but not in both the Old and New World, as might be supposed by many from the words used; the family cannot be properly said to "include a great variety of species"—compared to others it has but few. The word ape has been used in several ways: (a) our Aryan as well as less remote ancestors apparently used the cognate term for a cercopithecoid monkey; (b) it has been also employed with the extended sense indicated above; and finally (c), it has been misapplied to forms unknown to the "ancients," and is now much used as the English synonym of the family name *Simiidae*—that is, for the large tailless quadrumana. The family

does not include the Barbary ape—that species is a true monkey.

"*Camelidae* (ka-mel'i dō), n. pl. A family of quadrupeds, including the true camels of the eastern hemisphere, and the llamas of the western. They are the only ruminants with canine and incisor teeth in the upper jaw."

The *Camelidae* are by no means "the only ruminants with canine and incisor teeth in the upper jaw." Very many others have upper canine teeth, and some have very large and tusk-like ones—such are the water-deer, the musk-deer, and the *Tragulids*—while many extinct forms of ruminants had a full complement of both "canine and incisor teeth in the upper jaw."

Another fault is the constant use of anatomy ("anat.") for anthropotomy. For example, the "anat." terms, *anus* and *aorta*, have definitions and descriptions applicable to the manifestation of the parts in man, but not to their development in other animals. Occasionally we miss the zoölogical application of terms employed in many senses. Thus, *boot*, in addition to the meanings given, is used to denote the continuous front sheath of the tarsus of most oscine or singing birds, like the robin; *booted* is a correlated adjective.

There remains one defect for which the 'Imperial Dictionary' is not conspicuous, but which characterizes all in a greater or less degree. We can best express it by saying that the editorial point of view is too exclusively that of one to whom the language is vernacular. This is shown particularly in the want of pains taken to indicate the prepositions of relationship, as *to* and *with* after comparison, *to* and *from* after *averse* or *different*, *upon* after *dependent*, *of* and *upon* after *independence*, and the like—words in the choice of which the native often hesitates. This principle might be greatly extended so as to show words usually found in conjunction. For example, what verb shall be used with *autopsy*—*to have*, *hold*, *make*, or *perform*? We put the question as a foreigner might. If the new editors bear this in mind, and scrutinize every word in the light of its relationships, giving copious illustrative examples, we believe they will do more to make the 'Century Dictionary' preëminent than in any other way. In the meantime the 'Imperial Dictionary' is a very valuable addition to our books of reference.

WALKER'S POLITICAL ECONOMY.

Political Economy. [American Science Series.] By Francis A. Walker. Henry Holt & Co.

GENERAL WALKER departs widely from the traditional methods of elementary books on political economy. His view is that the principles of pure or *a priori* political economy should indeed be traced out and systematized, but less as an end of study for their own sake than to serve as a framework or skeleton on which to impose "the flesh and blood of an actual, vital political economy, which takes account of men and societies as they are, with all their sympathies, apathies, and antipathies." His wide reading and familiarity with industrial affairs supplied him with ample materials for the task of dealing with the subject in this spirit. His book abounds with fact and illustration taken from daily life. It discusses current questions with fearless vigor. Whatever may be thought of General Walker's conclusions, we apprehend that no one who reads his book will be likely to find it lacking in vitality.

That there was need of a fresh statement of the principles of political economy, most students and teachers of the subject are painfully aware. Whether they will accept General

Walker's book as suitable and satisfactory for their purposes, we shall not venture to predict. The orthodox school will undoubtedly find much in it to criticize. They will be likely to say that the author does not make the fundamental principles sufficiently prominent, and does not explain with sufficient fulness their play one upon another. They will probably reject the notion of a changeable or "final" utility, and also that conception of wealth which finds in improvements in production a tendency to diminish wealth. They will be likely to say that Mr. Walker gives undue prominence to demand and supply in his law of value, and ascribes far too little importance to cost of production. They will pretty certainly reject his theory of wages and profits. His apparent leaning to the heresy of the bimetalists will not be likely to conciliate their good opinion. And yet, even where they dissent entirely from the doctrine, they will probably find much in his book to stimulate thought and reflection.

The portions of his book on which General Walker would, we suppose, lay most stress, are those portions in which he develops his theory of wages. He rejects with emphasis the so-called wage-fund theory, and all theories which make wages the outcome of any ratio or relation between the amount of capital and the number of laborers. His own view is that production, not capital, is the measure of wages; that every act of productive labor is, in fact, rewarded out of its own product. Rent and the rewards of capital are determinate, being regulated by definite laws; under free competition they cannot exceed their normal amount. Wages alone are indeterminate. They are the residue of production left after paying the fixed charges; they vary, therefore, and vary at once, with every change in the productiveness of industry.

As against some statements of the wage-fund theory, it may be admitted that Mr. Walker has a case. That theory has undoubtedly been stated by some with too much rigidity and narrowness, as if it recognized nothing beyond a purely arithmetical process in the determination of wages. So stated, the theory is easily assailed. Yet we cannot but believe that the wage-fund theory, properly stated, rests on a sure foundation of industrial fact and sound reason; and that General Walker's contribution toward a better understanding of the law of wages, will turn out in the end to be whatever involuntary help he may have given toward a better statement of that theory. So far as may be done in a brief article, we wish to indicate the grounds of this belief.

The wage-fund theory starts with a few simple assumptions which we think no man will controvert. It assumes: (1) that there is in existence a body of wealth, known as circulating capital, which has been saved from past production, and is designed by the owners of it for use in gaining more wealth; (2) that nothing but fresh savings can increase this capital; (3) that high profits stimulate and low profits discourage fresh savings; (4) that the possessors of circulating capital will wish to keep it always employed in making gain.

Now, there is only one way in which circulating capital can be employed so as to make gain. Except to advance wages to laborers and rent to landlords, there is absolutely no room for it in the industrial system. If laborers and landlords always waited for their pay until the consumers of their commodities paid for them, there would be simply no function for circulating capital. The laborers would then, beyond question, be paid for every act of labor in the product of the labor itself, or rather its value; production would then in truth be the measure of wages. In that case, except the landlords

and owners of fixed capital, none but actual laborers would have any claim upon the products of industry. Wages would therefore be higher than at present—higher by the whole amount that now constitutes the gains of circulating capital. True, the gain would be accompanied by great risks for the individual laborer: a fall in the value of his product before it reached the consumer might lower very much, or even destroy entirely, the returns for his labor.

The mere existence of circulating capital is proof positive that laborers do not in fact wait for their rewards until the consumer pays for their products. The question here is one of fact—not what might be, nor what ought to be, but what is. Circulating capital exists, it pervades all industry, and everywhere, under proper management, it brings gain to its possessors. General Walker points to the fact that laborers were formerly hired by the year in this country, and were not paid in full till the end of the year; also to the fact that farm laborers quite commonly wait for their wages till the crop is harvested, or even sold. So far as this implies a real waiting for wages, and not a mere substitution of advances to laborers out of the circulating capital of the butcher, the grocer, and the dry goods merchant for advances by their actual employers, the fact could not fail to have an important influence on the rate of their wages. We admit freely that all such real waiting has its reward; it leaves less for circulating capital to do. But against the wage-fund theory it proves nothing. Unless laborers wait for their pay until the consumer pays for their products, their pay must come out of capital. There is a vast mass of farm produce in store on both sides of the Atlantic at the present moment. General Walker will scarcely contend that the laborers who produced it are still waiting for their pay. The mere transfer of the supply from one capitalist to another proves nothing. Whence, then, came the wages paid to those laborers? Whence, further, came the wages paid to laborers for producing all the other commodities that are now in warehouses and on the shelves of the dealers all over the country? It is futile to answer that these commodities themselves have been paid to laborers, or that laborers have been paid out of them; for here are the commodities to refute the assertion. Their wages, then, must have come from the saved products of previous labor—in other words, from circulating capital.

Now, the wage-fund theory assumes that the wages so paid to laborers in any given period cannot exceed the total amount available for the purpose. Further, it assumes that, in the ordinary course of things, the whole amount so available is in fact paid to laborers, since that is the only way in which any part of it can be used so as to make gain. But now we must notice a point which has been too frequently overlooked. Circulating capital, as its name implies, is wealth in motion. Much the larger part of it consists of commodities at one stage or another of their long progress from their first condition of crude nature to their final reception as finished products by the consumers. The other part consists of money received from consumers, and is, so to say, on its way back to the labor end of the double chain, to be there converted into commodities again through the agency of labor. There is thus a double movement going on in the circulating capital; it is the result of division of labor and exchange of commodities. Now, obviously, the effect on wages of a given mass of circulating capital will depend not simply on its amount, but also on the rapidity of its circulation. A capital of \$1,000 paid out for labor and recovered again from the consumer twice in a year, will act as powerfully on wages as double

the amount paid out and recovered only once in a year. Any circumstance, then, that affects the rapidity of circulation of the whole mass of circulating capital cannot be without an effect on wages. Anything that quickens the conversion of commodities into money at the consumer's end, will increase the amount of circulating capital in the form of money that awaits conversion into commodities at the labor end. This increase of money-capital will constitute an increased demand for labor, and wages will tend to rise. Similarly, any obstruction to trade, any increased difficulty in the sale of goods to consumers, will check the rapidity of circulation and tend to depress wages. A law of wages which overlooks this essential quality of circulating capital is no better than a law of prices which should fail to take account of the rapidity of circulation of money.

Secondly, the fact that exchange of commodities is carried on, not by barter, but through the medium of money, is not without an important bearing on the law of wages. The source of profits is undoubtedly, at bottom, the fact that laborers produce more than they consume. But to the employer profits are strictly a money question—a question of receiving more dollars for his commodity than he paid out to laborers for producing it. Anything that disturbs prices disturbs the basis of his operations. A fall of general prices, from whatever cause arising, lessens his margin for making profit—may even destroy it altogether. The wage-fund theory clearly does not imply that, in such a case, the employers must go on paying out money without the prospect of gaining by it, or even with the prospect of loss. On the contrary, it assumes that money-wages must, in such a case, speedily decline. The fall of prices indicates, of itself, a slower conversion of commodity capital into money-capital. Even if employers had the will to go on paying the old rate of wages, they would presently find themselves unable to continue it. The proportion of their capital locked up in commodities being increased, they have less to offer to laborers. The wage-fund theory was not suggested to account for changes such as this; but there is nothing in such changes at variance with it.

In the opposite case of a rise of prices, the gains of circulating capital will be increased, unless the rise of prices be accompanied by a corresponding rise of money-wages. Would it be so accompanied? The wage-fund theory answers, No, unless previously there was an abnormal accumulation of money-capital waiting for the proper inducement to seek labor. If the old rate of wages was such as to absorb all the circulating capital as quickly as it returned to its possessors, higher wages will not, and cannot, be paid until additional means of payment are forthcoming. Such additional means may be looked for from two sources: (1) a more rapid conversion of commodity-capital into money-capital, through the quickened purchases of consumers; (2) additional savings, attracted by the unusual opportunities for making gain. In either case, and both are probable, wages would tend to rise. Here it is that General Walker's theory and the wage-fund theory are most pointedly at variance. His theory is that in such a case wages must rise at once, without waiting for the increased pressure of money-capital. Employers can afford to pay higher wages, and under free competition they will pay, or will be compelled to pay, higher wages. We confess ourselves at a loss to discover how, in the first place, additional wages can be paid before additional means are at hand to pay with; or how, in the second place, competition can accomplish anything in the case. Competition is the great leveller. It will remove inequalities of wages,

but it is powerless to raise or to depress the general level of wages. If, indeed, it were open to every penniless upstart to undertake productive enterprises; if laborers could and would really wait to be paid out of product, then we should certainly have a very different state of things. Outsiders could then enter into competition with employers, and, by their added demand for labor, raise wages. But it does not do to forget that, except as against new capital, the possessors of old capital have a strict monopoly. It is futile to speak of what they can afford to do; they will not pay higher wages until they must. But General Walker's view may be that, by their own more urgent competition for the control of labor, they will raise wages. With what motive shall they compete more urgently? To increase production? Clearly not, because to increase production, as production is now carried on, involves the possession of additional plant and materials, and these, by his own assumption, they do not yet possess. If they should increase capital by new savings, or if a more rapid sale of goods to consumers should quicken the circulation of capital, then certainly wages would tend to rise; but that would be a different case from the one under discussion, and would conform to the wage-fund theory. We simply contend that while capital remains unchanged in amount and rapidity of circulation, there can be no rise of wages. The high profits would make men wish to have more circulating capital, or have it return to them more quickly, but would not make them willing to pay higher wages, so long as, at the existing rate, they can remvest all the circulating capital they have, as quickly as it returns to them.

General Walker finds a serious obstacle to the working of his theory in the fact that wages are always fixed by agreement before production begins. Nothing that happens during or after production can affect the terms of that agreement so far as production has actually gone. The agreement may no doubt be revised, but not so as to apply to the past. Yet he holds that this is but the formal relation of employer and employed. To us it seems the real and final relation in the case. General Walker holds that every mechanical invention, every improvement in production, has the immediate effect of raising wages. We should prefer to say that any improvement which cheapens articles used by the laborers or their families, benefits them quite as effectually as a rise of wages would do. But it is not a rise of wages; such a benefit the laborers share in common with all consumers of the cheapened commodity—they gain, not as laborers, but as purchasers of that commodity. It is difficult to perceive how laborers are to gain by the cheapening of an article that they do not purchase.

Finally, General Walker admits—he could not well avoid admitting—that scarcity of capital is attended by a high rate of interest. This is substantially all that the wage-fund theory contends for; in fact, it may be said that it is the wage-fund theory. High interest must, even on General Walker's theory, come out of the products of labor, and leave correspondingly less for the laborers. Wages, then, depend on capital, whether measured by it or not.

The Right and Wrong Uses of the Bible. By Rev. R. Heber Newton. John W. Lovell Co.

It was the opinion of Voltaire that it is not the costly folios, but the thirty-sous books, that serve the purposes of the intellectual reformer. Mr. Newton is evidently of the same opinion, and makes his appeal to the general public in paper covers. There is, again, abundant evidence that he has read the literature of his subject

widely and carefully, but the results at which he has arrived are reproduced with a remarkable freedom from bookishness. A more frequent reference to his technical apparatus would have given a more scholarly appearance to his argument, but it would have been likely to defeat the principal object which he has in view, which is to present a rational doctrine of the Bible in such a form that it will be easily apprehensible by any person of good natural intelligence. To this extent at least he has succeeded. His book is fresh, earnest, hearty; easy to read, and pleasant. However much it may offend the conservative instincts of the majority of Christian people, it cannot be justly charged with the least irreverence. Its enthusiasm for the Bible is its most conspicuous trait. Its most obvious limitations are a certain scrappiness throughout and a remarkable disproportion in the treatment of the Old and New Testaments. "The Power of the Bible is Christ," he tells us, but the amount of space assigned to the New Testament in his seven sermons is insignificant. It is unquestionable, however, that the new readings of the New Testament are quite as significant as the new readings of the Old. The apparent implication of Mr. Newton's sermons is that the Jesus of the New Testament is entirely simple and accessible, which he is not to those who know the ways of the New Testament critics. The unequal and insufficient emphasis which he has given to the New Testament as compared with the Old is doubtless owing to the fact that his later studies have been more especially with the Old Testament scholars. He is under their spell. There is a unity and integrity in their results, an order of development, which the New Testament criticism has not so obviously attained. And so it happens that the impression left by Mr. Newton's sermons is that the Old Testament is much more to him than the New—an impression squarely opposed to his theory of an evolution of religion of which the New Testament is the culmination.

The sermons are seven in number. The first, upon "The Unreal Bible," and the third and fourth, upon "The Wrong Uses of the Bible," are the most clear and definite. The unreal Bible is the "immaculate, infallible, oracular" Bible of the Westminster Confession. Its unreality is shown by such various considerations as that it has little sanction from the Church, as little from the Bible itself; that its growth discredits it; that the theory of it cannot be stated without self-contradiction; that other peoples have held a similar theory concerning other Bibles. The sermon on "The Real Bible" claims for the Bible our natural reverence, because it contains the literature of a noble race, a race preëminently religious, whose literature is as religious as its life, which pressed forward for many centuries, till it realized its ideal in "Christian Israel." The two sermons on "The Wrong Uses of the Bible" should not depend for their acceptance on the entire agreement of the reader with Mr. Newton's critical conclusions. Their considerations are for the most part obviously just, though they are generally disregarded. The sermons on "The Right Critical Use of the Bible" and "The Right Historical Use of the Bible" show that Mr. Newton cordially accepts "the results of the Dutch school," as they are still commonly called, though to-day they are no more characteristic of Kuenen and Oort in Holland than of Reuss and Wellhausen in Germany, Smith and others in Great Britain, Toy and others in the United States. Be it right or wrong, the set of Old Testament criticism is evidently toward this conclusion: that the Prophets, the Law, the Psalms, and not the Law, the Psalms, the Prophets, represent the true order of Israel's religious development.

Mr. Newton's closing sermon, on "The Right Ethical and Spiritual Use of the Bible," is a sufficient answer to the many voices that have charged him with an irreverent assault upon the Holy Scriptures. And yet it may be fairly questioned whether these voices have not a certain logical justification. Mr. Newton would fain believe that rational understanding of the Bible can develop a reverence for it equal to that which it has hitherto enjoyed. With a studious few it may do this. But for the great majority the ethical and spiritual uses which Mr. Newton has set forth are bound up pretty closely with the traditional view of its character. In simple truth, his Bible is the Word of Man, and, as such, it is hardly possible that it should have the influence and authority which has been accorded to it as the Word of God.

The Great Epics of Mediæval Germany. An Outline of their Contents and History. By George Theodore Dippold, of Boston University. Boston: Roberts Bros. 340 pp.

MR. DIPPOLD'S work, though not exhaustive, is a very valuable one. It is an excellent basis of study, and is at the same time of interest to the general reader. In Germany everybody reads the 'Nibelungen Lied,' and to be ignorant of its contents is a disgrace. During the past hundred years a whole army of German scholars have been busy in editing in the original language, in translating and in criticising, commenting and lecturing on, the Nibelung literature. If all the editions of the four prominent versions, the appendages and the fragmentary poems and sagas belonging to the Nibelung cycle, were collected, they would make a large library, and, if to this were added all the translations into modern German, all the commentaries and treatises, and all the dramas and poems based on Nibelung traditions, the result would be a most formidable collection of books. In the English tongue, comparatively little has hitherto been written. We have, of course, very readable essays by such writers as Carlyle and Max Müller. We have metrical and prose translations of the Middle High German version, by Birch (published in London in 1848), by Lettson (1850), and by Aubrey Forestier (1877); and William Morris has given us both an excellent translation of the most prominent Norse version, and a long original poem based on all the traditions combined and harmonized. But any comprehensive work on this subject the English language did not heretofore contain. We are therefore able to apply a trite phrase to Mr. Dippold's book, and say that it fills a gap in our literature. The author has evidently made a careful study of the German literature pertinent to his theme, and presents in a very convenient form an entertaining synopsis of the contents of the 'Nibelungen Lied,' interspersed with a liberal allowance of spirited metrical translations from the various adventures. To this he has added a tolerably full account of the Northern traditions, with a discussion of their relations to the German version. The mythological elements are pointed out, and the different theories in regard to authorship and historical influences are satisfactorily presented. Much information, also, is imparted in regard to the manuscripts, the metre, the translators, and commentators. In chapter vi., which tells of the poetry and art based on Nibelung traditions, Wilhelm Jordan, Morris, Geibel, and Julius Schnorr von Carolsfeld are mentioned, but we miss many important names which ought not to have been omitted.

The work also contains chapters on the charming epic, 'Gudrun,' with outlines of 'Parsifal,' 'Tristan and Isolde,' and 'Iwein,' and an admirable sketch of the development of the Arthur

saga and its connection with the legend of the Holy Grail. The author's indebtedness to the leading German scholars in this field of study is fully acknowledged. The mode in which Mr. Dippold has collected and arranged his material deserves especial commendation.

On the Desert. With a Brief Review of Recent Events in Egypt. By Henry M. Field, D.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1883.

DR. FIELD'S journey for this book was from Suez to Mt. Sinai, and thence northward across the desert to Palestine. As he himself says, "the peninsula of Sinai has been a favorite ground of Biblical explorers." He therefore disclaims any intention of writing more than a few notes of sketches on the desert. Of such notes there has also been no lack, for his route was not only long since described by Murray, but has now a well-established place among Cook's regular tours; so that not only for Biblical experts, but for ordinary travellers, it is familiar ground, of which nothing new can be written except the mere personal experiences of the traveller and the varied thoughts and emotions with which he is inspired by the sight of holy places. Such experiences and such thoughts make up this book. The former are such as accompany any ordinary journey in the East with camels; the latter it is difficult to characterize, for they will be judged entirely according to the bias of the reader and the amount of reverential awe possessed by him. There are certain passages whose diction and tenor command attention, but, on the whole, the book is hardly up to the grade of many of a similar character which have preceded it. The eulogy upon Moses seems to have been written as a defence against the attacks of Hupersoll, and the long disquisition on Hebrew polity would form an interesting lecture before a Bible class during the Lenten season, but is hardly worthy of an enduring place in permanent literature. The two chapters on recent events in Egypt are not directly connected with the journey, and are not superior to the best correspondence of the daily journals of a few months since. Altogether, the book is one of a numerous class which possess chiefly a personal interest for the friends of the writer on his return from a distant land.

Contested Etymologies in the Dictionary of the Rev. W. W. Skeat. By Hensleigh Wedgwood. London: Trübner & Co.; Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1882.

THIS is an interesting little book, convenient for original workers in English etymology, and full of appetizing curiosities for amateurs. Mr. Wedgwood is well known as one of the liveliest contributors to early numbers of the "Transactions of the Philological Society," and the author of an etymological dictionary, a second edition of which was published by Macmillan & Co. in 1872. It was full of learning and ingenuity, but the author attempted to use the onomatopoeic theory of the origin of language to explain English words, and that threw doubt on the soundness of the whole work.

It is pleasant to find that Mr. Wedgwood takes objection to no more than about two hundred and twenty-five words in Professor Skeat's dictionary, and that the objection to a large number of these relates merely to some far-off deduction or some supposed connection of thought. *Amerce*, for example, is by both derived from the Latin *merces*; but Mr. Skeat takes the meaning as *reward*—to *reward* for ill-desert being to *fine* or *amercé*; whereas Mr. Wedgwood goes to the secondary meaning, *mercy*, and regards to *amercé* as to *put at the mercy* of the court, and he gives quotations from early authors to show

that to have been the original meaning. Abundant quotations like these from rare sources, and parallel forms and phrases from little-known dialects, give the book its principal value to the scholar. But it is a choice collection of etymological puzzles, with many amusing solutions.

Etyma Græca: Ἄλ Etymological Lexicon of Classical Greek. By Edward Ross Wharton, M.A. London: Rivingtons. 1882.

THE plan of this little book seems to be a good one. It contains first an alphabetical list of Greek words such as are not palpably formed from some other Greek words, with references in most cases by number to the particular phonetic change illustrated, which is given in the following part; this covers 120 pages with some thirty-five words on a page. The second part, giving the phonetic modifications under the three heads of growth, change, and loss, covers twenty-three pages. Two appendices, one on onomatopoeic words and one on loan-words, complete the book. Of the execution of the plan it is difficult to give a just idea without taking too much space. It is not a book fit for a beginner in Greek or for an ordinary college student; and even an advanced student would find other sources of information necessary on account of the extreme conciseness of treatment. To a conservative etymologist it will appear that the writer knows a great deal more than anybody has a right to know on this subject. Stems which most of us are content to regard as primitive, are here confidently analyzed. Many rare words are given from fragments or grammarians' notices, which often add just so much obscurity instead of throwing light on other words. Any one who will look at the words *ζῆλος*, *ζωνταῖον*, *νύκταρ*, *σά*, and *ἀνακρέτω*, *ἀναξ*, *βλάβη*, *ἔρκος*, *ἑταῖρος*, *θεός*, *κερτόμος*, *σφῶν*, will see some of the grounds of this opinion. No one could profitably use the book who did not know already enough to judge independently the value of its statements, but to such a man it might be of some use as a handy little compendium.

The Philosophy of Kant in Extracts. Selected by John Watson, LL.D. Kingston: William Baillie, Printer. 1882.

THIS little manual, prepared for facilitating the study of Kant among his own students, by Prof. Watson, of Kingston, Canada, might well find a more extended use. The clumsy redundancy of Kant's style has always seriously hindered readers from getting at his main drift, and the several attempts to make the path clearer by restating the meaning in orderly sequence, abandoning the form, have not met with much success. Indeed, a book of this sort very properly excites suspicion, the reader being unable to determine what proportions of Kant, and what of alien matter, the mixture contains. Prof. Watson's plan is to print the *ipsissima verba*, but to reduce their number. In 200 pages of judicious extracts he lucidly presents the current of thought which meanders through eight or nine

hundred pages of Kant's 'Critiques' of Pure Reason, of Practical Reason, and of Judgment. The translations used are those of Müller, Stirling, Abbott, and, in the case of the 'Critique of Judgment,' Prof. Watson's own. For college use, such a series of extracts has many advantages over the full text. For a first reading, private students will find it convenient; and that it has been done by a competent hand the learning and ability of Prof. Watson's earlier book on 'Kant and his English Critics' are a sufficient warrant.

Der Pessimismus und die Sittenlehre. Von Hugo Sommer, Amtsrichter in Blankenburg am Hartz. Haarlem: De Erven F. Bohn. 1882. Pp. 170.

THIS little volume is a clear and timely exposition of the irreconcilable antagonism between modern pessimism, especially Hartmannism, and every sound and practical theory of conscience. Morals, it is argued, is far less a matter of the intellect, or even of the will, than of the heart. A "feeling of oughtness" arises in us long before the concept of *what* we ought, and survives a very high degree of volitional decay; nor can we will without first feeling the value of the end willed. Conscience, or the instinct of "self-preservation of the higher ego," are only other names for this feeling. In feeling of all kinds, and chiefly in this, is found what is general and common to all as opposed to the individual and accidental found in intellect. The final end is what we *really* are; and although, like all views of the whole, we can have no adequate standard of measurement for it—so that it must remain miraculous and poetical, holy—our chief moral aim is to subordinate everything in us and in nature to it, till it appears to us as it truly is, central, final, supreme. The pessimism of E. von Hartmann is based on a false hypostasization of Force, as Schopenhauer's of Will. Blind, impersonal, logical, anti-rational though it be, it is yet made central and supreme, so that the final end of the universe is made to appear vain, illusive, and nugatory.

From this it follows that the ethics of pessimism, so often regarded as sublime enough to counteract the absurdity of its metaphysics and psychology, must be rejected as chaotic and false, because opposed to the fundamental supposition upon which alone either conscience or the religious feeling can have any authority. "We must pity, love, and redeem the transcendent suffering of the Unconscious," says Hartmann. "Impossible," replies Sommer, "for, just because it is quite unconscious, it is less capable of exciting pity than the lowest of sensitive organisms, while it is by no means apparent how pity can be made the ground of ethics, either theoretically or practically." The complacency with which Hartmann tells those who differ from him that if their stomachs are better fitted for pork and cabbage than for nectar and ambrosia, it is not his fault, is exceedingly offensive to our author; and yet he quite wrongly declares that evolution

and materialism culminate in Hartmannism, when the fact is, that the philosophy of the Unconscious is far more a product of the metaphysical than of the scientific spirit. We are far from convinced of any so radical opposition between the Aristotelian standpoint of Dr. Sommer and that of Hartmann, but commend his book to those interested in a vigorous discussion of the subject.

La Botanique. Par J. L. De Lanessan. Paris: C. Reinwald; New York: F. W. Christern. 561 pp., 12mo.

THE author is Associate Professor of Natural History in the Faculty of Medicine, Paris, and is well known as a careful translator of certain English and German scientific works. He is, moreover, an author of a good treatise on zoölogy and of several papers favorable to Darwinism. From these facts it can be easily believed that this work is characterized, firstly, by the incorporation of a good deal of what forms the subject-matter of the larger English and German treatises on botany; secondly, by a broad grasp of the phenomena common to animals and plants; thirdly, by a decidedly evolutionary cast given to the whole; and lastly, of course, by French clearness. Much of what the author's extensive reading has placed him in possession of is here given without any critical comment whatever, and hence there is a good deal of trash mixed in with what is worth keeping. But it may be said to be trash for which he is not directly responsible, except that he could have left it out. As a whole, the work is convenient, very readable, and up with the times; but a volume so crowded with facts, no matter how well arranged, needs a copious index: this has none.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Practical Hints on Rifle Practice, with Military Arms. Orange Judd Co.
Public, Rear-Admiral G. H. Chronological History of the Origin and Development of Steam Navigation. 1543-1882. Philadelphia: L. R. Hamersly & Co.
Price, A. Who is Sylvia? A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Public Health Papers and Reports. Vol. vii. Presented in Savannah in 1881. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$3.
Racinet, A. Le Costume Historique. Part 15. J. W. Bouton.
Ritter, F. L. The Realm of Tones. Edward Schuberth & Co.
Robeson, H. J. Diagrams of Parliamentary Rules, according to both Cushing and Robert. Ann Arbor, Mich.: John Moore.
Rolf, W. J. The Two Noble Kinsmen, written by Fletcher and Shakespeare. With engravings. Harper & Bros.
Romanes, G. J. Animal Intelligence. D. Appleton & Co. \$1.75.
Schönberg, Dr. G. Handbuch der Politischen Oekonomie. 2 vols. Tübingen: H. Laupp; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Shakespeare's Works. Parchment edition. Vol. iv. D. Appleton & Co. \$1.25.
Smiles, S. James Nasmyth. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Smith, R. B. Life of Lord Lawrence. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. \$5.
Smith, J. A. (State Geologist). Report of the Development of the Mineral, Metallurgical, Agricultural, Pastoral, and Other Resources of Colorado, for the Years 1881 and 1882. Denver: Chalm & Hardy. 35 cents.
Street's Indian and Colonial Mercantile Directory for 1882-3. London: G. Street & Co.; New York: S. M. Pettengill & Co.
Taylor, Helen Louisa. Out of the Way. E. & J. B. Young & Co. \$1.25.
Zimmern, Helen. The Epic of Kings. Stories Retold from Firdusi. Henry Holt & Co. \$2.50.
Zöckler, Prof. O. Handbuch der Theologischen Wissenschaften. 3d half-volume. B. Westermann & Co.

Henry Holt & Co.

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Stories Retold from Firdusi. By Helen Zimmern. With a Prefatory Poem by Edmund W. Gosse. 12mo, \$2.50.

"The book is charming from beginning to end. A notable addition to the libraries of those who care to know the great classics of the world."—*London Saturday Review*.

Gideon Fleyce.

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